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ABSTRACT

This volume of a publication devoted to providing ideas and guidance for teachers of English as a second language includes short articles on cloze testing: teaching culture: using games, the media, and language labs: and teaching pronunciation. (MMN)

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Volume 9

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GENERATING LANGUAGE THROUGH MEDIA

AUDIO-VISUAL PRODUCTION BY THE ESL STUDENT

By Linda New Levine

As a language teacher, my definition of the nature of language is necessarily different from that of the linguist or the anthropologist. Rather than perceiving language as a system, as linguists do, I see language as a method of communication within a social context, a vehicle for getting things done, a set of skills useful for completing specific tasks.

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With this definition in mind, the job of the language teacher acquires new meaning. Teachers can no longer teach language in the abstract as a body of knowledge that students must absorb, rather they must teach students to *use* language. Bernard Spolsky made this point in his article "The Limits of Language Education" in *The Linguistic Reporter* (Spolsky 1971:2) when he said, "language teachers have seen their task as teaching language; they have not realized that it is teaching students to *use* language."

The ability to use a new language within a social setting for the purpose of completing tasks is sometimes termed "communicative competence." Wilga Rivers refers to this ability as "spontaneous expression." Both terms imply a student's linguistic competence in the language or his ability to produce grammatical sentences. Communicative competence also implies a student's grasp of the social meaning of language, an understanding of the cultural and social amenities as well as the non-verbal behavior that occurs in language contexts.

For my discussion, I prefer the term "conversational competence" used by Bruce Fraser in his paper "The Development of

Communicative Competence in Second Language Acquisition" at the 1974 TESOL Convention. Conversational competence excludes the area of non-verbal behavior which I will not be focusing on in this paper. Rather, I will discuss some general methods for developing conversational competence in second language students and then some of the specific methods involving task completion and the use of media which I have employed in my own middle schoool and high school ESL classes.

In my attempts to teach students how to use language, I have made several assumptions about developing the most efficient system of learning. To maximize learning efficiency I assume that:

1) Learning is an individualized procedure. Students differ in intelligence, achievement levels, rates of learning, interests, and styles of learning and cognition. Therefore the most efficient learning situation takes these differences into account and attempts to provide various ways for learning a particular skill.

2) Language learning is socialized behavior. To learn to use a language a student must have ample opportunity to practice using language as a skill. Therefore, the most efficient language learning situation must provide a high density of interpersonal communication.

3) Learning is most efficient when it is self-directed. The language learner who is actively involved in the selection, sequencing, and timing of his own learning program will use his learning time in the most efficient way. Tourists traveling abroad are proof of this assumption as they quite easily learn the corresponding phrase for "How much?" in as many languages as they find necessary. Therefore, the most efficient learning system should provide for student input.

In my own middle school and high school classes of Italian and Spanish students, I have found that these three criteria may be met by implementing a program for student production of media. Students who produce their own slide shows, filmstrips, and movies are learning to use language to complete tasks and they are working on these projects according to their own individual styles within a social context of cooperating with others, and to a large extent, under their own direction. I will discuss six specific techniques which second language teachers can employ and adapt to their own curriculum in order to increase the conversational competence of their students.

Student photography is a good way in which to introduce second language students to the world of media. They quickly learn how to use an inexpensive Polaroid camera and are highly motivated by the fast 15-second results to produce more pictures. The job of the teacher is to suggest appropriate topics as photographic subjects. When students are involved in a language lesson concerning a school building, they can take a Polaroid camera and shoot a roll of eight black and white or color pictures of their own school and the facilities within the building. Other language lessons which focus on the community, the house and the furniture within the house, the family, or the drugstore provide a good setting for photography. Conversation necessarily occurs as an offshoot of the assignment as students must interact verbally in planning sessions prior to the actual photographic session. The newly taught vocabulary and structures are more likely to be used by students during the planning session if the photographic topic is specific and directly related to the original classroom presentation of the new material. Therefore, if students are planning to photograph their community, they will be likely to use the target vocabulary and structures identified by the teacher if these structures have been questioned during the student planning session.

After the actual photography is finished, students must then cooperate on an appropriate means of sharing their project with the others in the class. This involves the

Linda New Levine, a doctoral student in ESL and Linguistics at New York University, is currently teaching ESL in the Bedford School District, New York. She has taught ESL with the Peace Corps in the Philippines and in the New York City School system.

student in a form of peer teaching and provides a goal for the completion of the photographic assignment. They must write a story on the assigned topic and use the pictures as a visual accompaniment. This becomes an attractive photo book if the students write the story neatly on unlined paper, cover the book with an attractive cover, and bind the pages together with a plastic punch binding or with brass fasteners. The book can now be included in the classroom library for other students to read.

Another method of sharing student photography is the photographic wall chart. Here, students write a story on a large sheet of chart paper in letters large enough to be read by the class. The photographs are placed on the chart as a visual accompaniment to the text. These charts can be shared by the entire class. Here again, the conversation that occurs as part of the planning and completion of the project enables the student to use the newly acquired language skills for the completion of a task. This is, in my view, the real goal of language learning.

Student photographs can also be used to create decorative and informative bulletin boards on particular subjects. Again, the bulletin boards are created to be shared by all the students in the class. Because these projects are really a variety or experience chart, they are especially effective for those students in the class requiring reading remediation as the reading involved is usually well within the student's aural-oral command.

Polaroid photography requires few equipment demands on the part of the teacher. However, the next technique I will discuss, student made slide shows, requires more equipment but produces more satisfying results. Slide shows may be of two types. One type of slide show is in the form of a picture story. The student may select a topic such as "My Neighborhood," and then represent the topic pictorially. Ideas for shows of this type are endless, for example: "My Country," "My Family," or a slide show on jobs and occupations. Another type of slide show may be prepared to provide practice of a particular grammatical structure. For example, the present progressive or the simple present tense may be illustrated in a show titled *What People Do All Day*. Here, pictures will show the teacher teaching, the children playing, the farmer working, and so on. Slide shows may also be produced to illustrate comparative adjectives such as *big, bigger,* and *biggest* or the plural of nouns.

A slide show project involves either the use of a 35 millimeter camera or an Instamatic camera and roll of color slide film for twenty or thirty-six pictures. Students must again plan their photographic session before they begin to photograph so that they can cover the topic thoroughly and not waste their film allotment. The teacher can aid in these planning sessions by appropriate questioning. In this way students may be directed toward using the target structures and vocabulary to accomplish their planning task.

After the slides are returned from the processer, students may arrange them in a logical sequence and write a script accompaniment which they can then tape on a tape recorder for presentation to the class. Another method of presentation is to ask students to relate the slide show extemporaneously. This is a more difficult skill, however, and most students will require many practice sessions before they can extemporize before a class.

If the teacher has access to a Kodak Ectagraphic Visualmaker, students may produce slide shows of more extensive subjects than those found in their immediate environment. The Ektagraphic Visualmaker consists of an Instamatic camera with a close-up lens attached to a camera stand.

The camera is permanently focused onto a table top background. Using this device, students can produce quality slides from pictures found in magazines and books. Thus, students can produce slide shows on a wide variety of topics: zoo or farm animals, scenes from their native countries, various kinds of air, land, and water transportation, biographies of famous people, and many others. These slide presentations and their taped accompaniments may be shown on a slide projector and then made a part of the ESL classroom library or catalogued in the regular school library.

The concluding installment of "Generating Language Through Media" will appear in the next issue of the *TESL Reporter*.

THE ART OF CHANGE IN ESOL OR HOW TO CREATE AN ELEPHANT

By Larry E. Smith

Recently I read of a man who, as a sculptor, creates amazingly lifelike figures of elephants. When asked how he did it, he replied, "I just take a big rock and chip away until I've eliminated everything that doesn't look like an elephant." At first I found his answer merely humorous; perhaps even flippant, but later I began to realize that he had offered a clue for successful change in ESOL.

Many of us in ESOL are not satisfied with our present "state of the art" and desire change. Our professional journals frequently have articles like, "New Directions in Language Learning" and "Let's Change Our Base of Operations." We continue to seek better and more appropriate methods, books, and teacher training techniques. I say "we" because I am a part of this search.

As you are well aware, there are many things we don't know in language learning and language teaching. We don't know how people learn languages–first or second. We don't even know if people who learn more than one language learn them in the same ways. We don't know if all people go through the same stages in language learning–some faster than others–or if each person has his own individual learning strategies. We don't know if one skill (reading, writing, speaking, or listening) should precede another or if they should be taught in some integrated fashion. We aren't sure if we get better results by teaching the language directly or by teaching a subject like math in the language. No doubt, you can give me other examples like these. With all this ignorance, it is little wonder that our profession is in a state of confusion.

Of course experiments have been done and are being done to provide us with clues to the answers of these questions. Frequently however the results offer us conflicting evidence. I don't mean to imply by this that we need fewer language experiments. We should continue to seek solid empirical evidence as guideposts; however we need not wait until a consensus is reached on these questions before we begin to implement change.

I am suggesting that looking at existing programs with a felt desire for change, we begin by chipping away those things which don't contribute to a good ESOL program. Let me describe a situation. In an Asian secondary school we find the students required to "take" (I didn't say study or learn) English three hours a week. According to the written policy of the school, the main objectives of English instructions are: 1) To help the learner acquire the skill to communicate in English, orally and in writing. 2) To help the learner acquire the skill to read for information and enjoyment. 3) To enable him to use English in commerce and industry. 4) To provide him a window to the English speaking world. There are between 45-50 students in each class.

The teachers are like teachers everywhere; some are competent, others are not. Most of them cannot carry on a conversation in English with a native speaker except of the most superficial kind. i. e., "Where do you live? How many brothers and sisters do you have? What is your favorite sport? Can you use chopsticks?" They have difficulty in understanding these same questions if asked by a native speaker because their opportunity for such an exchange is so limited. Most teachers cannot write a descriptive essay or a friendly letter in English with any originality. They can read and translate. Traditional grammar rules seem second nature and their penmanship is almost always outstanding. Most

of them have never left their country and very few read novels, short stories, or plays in English for pleasure. They frequently watch American and British movies and some of them listen to the Voice of America and BBC news broadcasts.

Like the teachers, the textbooks are many and varied. Some are very old and were used by the teachers when they were students. Others are experimental in nature. Some seem to stress speaking (pronunciation and dialog memorization) while others tell of the life of Mark Twain and Sir Walter Raleigh with exercises for translation. The students in the first year classes seem fairly interested while the seniors are quite evidently bored. Classroom activities consist of "Repeat after me." "Translate the passage for us to hear." "Copy these sentences in your notebooks." and "Write your paragraph on the board." Grammar rules and literary excellence are often discussed in the native language. When asked why they are teaching English or what the objectives are for a semester or a particular class, most teachers act as if those are irrelevant questions. The students know why they are there. English is required and in order to pass the college entrance examination they must be able to read and translate as well as know some rather esoteric grammar rules. Of course some students realize that 85% of them will not pass the examination and would rather be doing almost anything else than studying English.

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In a situation like this, where do we begin the chipping process? The analogy of the elephant's creation from a rock is pretty good here. The task is enormous. The resistance for change is hard and solid. If you aren't careful, you can damage the entire piece of work. We shouldn't try and accomplish too much with each blow. Slowly and with caution the work should begin and continue. It will take patience and skill. I suggest we begin by chipping away some of the objectives. It's not that they aren't worthy goals but with only three hours a week, they are impossible. We may not be able to erase them from the policy handbook but we can erase them from our minds and thereby ease some of the frustration of never being able to reach our goals. I would certainly delete objective 3) "To enable him to use English in commerce and industry." I would keep objective 1) "To help the learner acquire the skill to communicate in English, orally and in writing," but with modifications. I would "chip" the emphasis on pronunciation since that is a weak area for teachers, accent the need for listening comprehension in communication, chip away at the correctness syndrome for speaking and writing and put a sharper edge on getting one's message across. Objective 2) "To help the learner acquire the skill to read for information and enjoyment," is one I would use to defend "fun in the classroom," as well as an emphasis on the art of taking tests. We would read the newspaper for editorials, advertisements, want ads, and news articles when we "read for information" in addition to office memos and business letters. We would discuss the grammar rules as well as the organizational strategy for each one. For objective 4) "To provide him a window to the English speaking world." I would chip away some of the classroom activities like "Repeat after me." and "Copy this in your notebooks." and replace them with a Dick Via production or a visit to a Saturday matinee followed by a classroom discussion. Popular English and American songs might even be sung and discussed. I'd consistently chip away at the idea that English should be a required subject and that the entrance examination system is the most practical one. I would, however, be extremely careful with these issues because the potential for marring the entire figure is very great.

The effective implementation of change is an art. It is a slow process. The need for change in our profession is urgent and yet because of its immenseness, it is sometimes difficult to know where to begin. I would encourage us, beginning where we are, to chip away those things which we are confident impede us in our English teaching/learning experience.

TOWARD COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE WITH "ANN" AND "ABBY"

By Kenneth G. Aitken

One of the most abused rights of the second language learner is the right to make a mistake. There is a tendency by ESL teachers to control classroom conversations and impose corrections on students so that only the most audacious students speak out. The other students speak only when spoken to. Hence, few mistakes are made in the classroom, and the teacher assumes the language is being learned. Although teachers claim to be teaching their students how to use a second language, there is a lack of free, meaningful conversation in most ESL classrooms. Seldom do we provide opportunities for students to communicate their feelings on issues, problems, and experiences.

David Wolfe (1967) suggests that progress towards natural, meaningful conversation in the ESL classroom is hindered by the artificiality of language learning through drills and exercises that force the student to lie. He says that from the point of view of true communication sentences like

'Yesterday I went to the movies.
'Last night I went to the game.
'Last week I went to the game.

border on the nonsensical. Stern (1970) concurs when he writes that teachers are often so preoccupied with the forms of language, the patterns of sentences, points of pronunciation, etc., that they entirely forget that language is used for communication of something to somebody. Yet the basic goal of TESL is to enable the student to successfully send and receive messages of his/her choice in English. Oller (1971) tells us that to accomplish this goal we must involve the student in active, meaningful communication in the target language–the sooner, the better.

In this article I will discuss one way I have used to involve intermediate level, adult ESL students in active communication using selected letters from the "Dear Abby" and "Ann Landers" columns in the daily newspapers.

The technique I employ in conversation sessions is based on the notion that certain communication activities are easier than others, and that certain easy activities tend to "warm up" the conversationalists so that they feel more comfortable and are therefore more willing to respond to others. The communication activities, from easiest to most difficult, that I use are: listening to one person speaking or reading aloud; talking and listening to two friends; reporting to a group of twenty acquaintances on the ideas and opinions of oneself and friends; and writing to a stranger giving advice that has been requested.

At the beginning of the session each student is given a copy of the letter to Dear Abby, or Ann Landers, that is the topic of discussion for the day. The response, however, is not supplied at this time. The teacher reads the letter aloud while the students follow the text. Following this, the teacher explains any vocabulary items or idioms that may be confusing to the students. (This should be kept as brief as possible.) The key issue in the letter is identified at this point. Initially the teacher might point it out and write it on the board. However, after some experience, the students should be asked to identify the issue during the small group discussions (Farid 1974).

The students are grouped in triads (groups of three) and asked to discuss, and respond to, the issue, question or whatever has been raised in the letter. In my experience, few students have wasted the opportunity to speak in English in these unsupervised conversations. In selecting those who are in each triad, it is wise to put your outspoken and opinionated students together so they can struggle in a group, rather than dominate conversation in a triad that has two less vocal students. With the outspoken students no longer monopolizing the conversation, the other students can, and do, have lively and stimulating conversations in English.

Before the topic has been completely 'milked dry' in the small group discussion, the groups are gathered together into a larger group discussion. For best results I have found that when sitting in a circle, without wide gaps or empty places between them, the students and teacher can carry on the conversation with maximum participation. The teacher now functions as a moderator and draws out of the group member's reports and discussion what was discussed in the triads.

During all these discussions the teacher makes no corrections of student errors. The students are encouraged to share their thoughts on the issue and not to focus on the language. The teacher should treat each response with respect.

If interest in the topic is keen, the teacher may ask the class to write a response to the letter. The response should be brief, and in letter form. I have found that students at this stage request some feedback on correctness of grammar. In reading and marking the letters the teacher should comment on a limited number of grammatical points, as well as on the content.

After the class has experienced a number of such communication sessions, they become used to the routine and begin to make generalizations about North American cultural patterns. When they reach this stage, rather than focus on the problem raised in a letter to a column, the teacher might direct the class to focus on the cultural implications raised by these types of newspaper columns. Blatchford (1973) suggests that a selection of many columns with a cultural focus, with the columnists' responses, be made available to the students. The groups then could come to grips with questions like:

'What bothers Americans?
'Why do they write to an impersonal party for professional advice?
'Why can't people discuss problems openly with friends or associates and get immediate help?'

These questions could be handled in the same way as the columns themselves were handled, moving through the various communication activities.

Someone is sure to object to these types of communication activities because they are uncontrolled. However Dulay and Burt (1973) have argued that the most important characteristic of a natural communication situation is that the attention of the speaker and hearer is on the content of the verbal exchange, rather than on its form. Yet we note that most language teachers and language materials focus on the structure to be taught. Frequently this results in messages meaningless to both teachers and students. "This may be because language teachers are supposed to teach language and not anything else, just as social studies teachers, or science teachers are supposed to teach social studies or science." (Dulay and Burt 1973:257). The fallacy is, that language is 'form' and cannot reasonably be compared to subject matter, which is 'content'. Communication activities, such as those I have discussed here, place emphasis on meaning and information exchange, and are steps to putting some content into ESL classes.

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(continued on page 14)

TEACHING CONVERSATION THROUGH STUDENT INSTRUCTION

By Kenyon Moss

A major problem in teaching conversation is that of maintaining student interest. This is especially true when the class is made up of advanced ESL students. Interest wanes when the topic is not situational. Pattern practice and most other drills do not provide the students with the necessary stimulation to converse with each other.

In an effort to overcome this problem, I assigned my conversation class to prepare to teach the rest of the class an outside game or activity.

There were four students from Korea, four from Tonga, four from Hong Kong, two from Japan, and one each from Tahiti and Taiwan in the class.

The first day one of the Tongan boys came to class with a large kitchen knife. Since he seemed to be prepared, I asked him to be first. As we walked outside, he cut coconut fronds and gave each of us a leaf, explaining we were going to make horns. He then had us stand in a circle and "told" as he demonstrated how to take the rib out of the leaf. When this was done, he used the knife to shorten the leaves and make them straight on the ends. He then told us how to roll what remained of the leaf into a horn. Several of the students made horns of varying lengths, resulting in varying tones. Some of us could get nothing but air from ours. The students were asking questions on how to fold it, how to hold it, and many other details. Those who were successful in making and blowing their horns were telling the rest of us how we, too, could accomplish such a task.

A Korean girl was next. She divided the class into two teams. One member from a team would go forward and stand face-to-face with a member from the other team. The object was to make the other person laugh first. The rule was that you could only talk. There was to be no touching or play acting. The first one to laugh lost and was replaced by another member of his team. The first team to lose all of its players lost the game. It was interesting to see a ninety pound girl from Hong Kong try to make a two hundred pound Tongan boy laugh.

A Japanese girl taught us how to play her version of "Drop the Hankie."

Another Tongan student told us how to make toy windmills out of the leaves of the plam trees.

Every student in the class had his turn and demonstrated various other activities and games during the next two class periods. Some elicited more conversation than others, but all were situational and interesting to the students. New words, phrases, and sentences were learned in context and high student rapport was established. Students also enjoyed "teaching the teacher."

If writing had been part of the class, the students could have also written the directions to the activity. Then other students could take the written directions and try to follow them.

THE LEXINYM- A BRAND-NEW CONCEPT FOR THE LANGUAGE TEACHER

By Jason B. Alter

The teacher of English as a Second language has long had an extensive list of "nyms" to work with and, especially, to work from. There are the ordinary nyms: synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms. Then, there are the somewhat more esoteric: acronyms, heteronyms, eponyms, etc. These help the student to see the inner workings of the English language; his linguistic appetite is whetted; he gains more control over the vagaries of the language.

The use of the various nyms constitutes a mind-expanding language experience, a pedagogically valid adjunct, at the very least, to the workaday curricular agenda. Vocabulary gains are one spin-off. For example, the word "rate" might very well come up in a lesson. The teacher might ask the student to rearrange the letters of "rate" to make some other word, and the student might say "tear". Well, "tear" is a heteronym. It can be pronounced two ways: (1) /tar/ (to rip) or (2) /tir/ (a drop of liquid); but the spellings are identical.

It so happens that both pronunciations of "tear" have homonyms, which is admittedly a much richer category than that of the heteronyms. Language activity proceeds apace, as students make sentences using the words engendered. Again, the students and the teacher should work *from* the nyms, into communicative language-aware activities. Memorizing lists of nyms is non-productive.

Another fringe benefit of the use of nyms is in spelling improvement. Thus, the acronym for the Agency for International Development is "AID" (cf. "aid"), and the homonym is "aide", not to mention the suffix "-ade". The student and the teacher can get a lot of mileage out of the nyms.

Now I'd like to define the LEXINYM, which I am alleging could (in a far-fetched sense) be construed as an embodiment of the "deep lexicon." The lexinyms encourage the student to read between the letters, as it were. The lexinyms also represent a kind of communication activity whereby the student is challenged to search for a meaning connection between the two words involved. Class discussion will flow, as various students see farther or closer connections.

(1) For example, take the word "unclear." If we reverse the "u" and the "n", we have "nuclear". One could readily posit that the issue of nuclear energy is an unclear one. Is it a blessing or a curse? Discuss!

(2) There's a lot of interest these days in the martial arts. "Martial" is a lexinym for "marital". The alarming divorce statistics in the United States attest to the close lexical connection between these two words. One is also reminded of Thurber's "War Between the Sexes," which advanced-level students might be invited to peruse, here we see a reading tangent from the nym.

(3) "Sacred" is a lexinym for "scared". The more timid among us might be a bit scared to tread on sacred ground. Outlandish? Maybe so, but I see the lexinym as a device to get the student into the language.

I interject the comment that I am limiting, in the nine examples given herein, the lexinym to words that result from single letters that are juxtaposed. One might expand the notion of the lexinym to include words where letters are more disparate, which would open up a much larger category. One that comes to mind is "parental"; cf. "prenatal." Etc.

(4) Consider "perfect" and "prefect".

Especially in British-school environments, the prefect system prevails. Ideally, the prefect sets a perfect example for the students in his charge.

(5) How about "tired" and "tried"? After you tried doing something ad nauseam, you may well literally be sick and tired of doing so.

The goal is not to have the student use both lexinyms in the same sentence; I am doing this here merely for effect. All we want the student to do is to perceive lexical affinities. What can s/he reason out? Vocabulary enrichment is an attenuating benefit.

(6) Then we have "owe" and "woe." "Neither a borrower nor a lender be." To owe too much often results in woe.

(7) Next, "use" and "sued". The used car turned out to be a lemon so he sued the dealer. In a cross-cultural sense, "lemon" has positive connotations in the language.

(8) And, "craving" and "carving". She developed a craving for that particular carving.

I respectfully suggest that lexinyms offer multifarious possibilites to add sparkle to the language class. (Cf. "add" and "dad"; lexinyms are all around us.) The resourceful language teacher can use lexinyms for spelling, vocabulary, language-awareness, class discussions, code-breaking, pronunication, etc. Seek lexinyms, and ye shall find them; getting there is half the fun. The students will learn English and about English along the way.

(9) Finally, "diary" and "dairy". Students are invited to be on the lookout for lexinyms until the cows come home. Possibly, the dairy farmer does keep a diary.

PROFESSIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

For information on the following, please write directly to the addresses indicated. The TESL Reporter has no further information.

TEFL--Linguistics--Assistant or Associate Professor with completed Ph.D. and strong emphasis in TEFL, EFL and Applied Linguistics to act both as administrative director and instructor in Linguistics Programs. Rank and salary to be based on training and experience. Please forward resume' to Dr. Daniel J. Cahill, Head, Department of English Language and Literature, University of Northern Iowa, Cedar Falls, Iowa 50613. The University of Northern Iowa is an equal opportunity affirmative action employer. Women and minority candidates may identify themselves for purposes of affirmative action.

The Division of English as a Second Language, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, is accepting applications from persons interested in TEACHING/RESEARCH INTERNSHIP APPOINTMENTS at the Tehran University Language Center, Tehran, Iran. This is a GRADUATE PROGRAM open to students with BA/BS degrees, leading to the M. A. in the Teaching of English as a Second Language (MATESL) degrees, and to the students on doctorates in related fields. Applications accepted up to March 1, 1976. Transportation, stipends, benefits. PERSONAL INTERVIEWS REQUIRED. For further information, write or call Dr. Lawrence F. Bouton, Division of English as a Second Language, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 3070 Foreign Languages Building, Urbana, Illinois 61801. Phone (217) 333-1506 or 333-1507.

CLOZE TESTING-- AN ANSWER TO MR. AITKIN'S ARTICLE

by Roger K. Williams

See Volume 8 No.2 Winter 1975 edition, page 9; Volume 7 No.4 Summer 1974 edition, pages 7-9.

I was interested in Kenneth G. Aitken's reply to my article in the winter '75 issue. Hopefully, readers referred back to my article after reading Mr. Aitken's. If they did, they should have discovered that the ideas in each did not necessarily conflict and that each article still makes some valid points. Consider the following:

1. Mr. Aitkin stated, "Williams argues that reading and listening are decoding processes." On the contrary, I said that "reading is *primarily* the decoding of written symbols into meaning" but *also includes* encoding, as when one meets unfamiliar words and anticipates meaning from the context. One then is producing a word to fill in a blank. Just like a cloze test. So on very easy material, a cloze test parallels the reading process. On this point we agree, I think. However, my article went on to say that if the material is *difficult*, if *too many* crucial content words are omitted, then it may become impossible to fill in the blanks. Too much encoding is required. More encoding is required in that situation than is usually required in reading. Therefore, in that situation (reading difficult subject matter with too many crucial words missing) the cloze test only partially parallels the reading process. Mr. Aitken must agree with this point because he states (p. 17) that one would be wise to "use an *easier reading selection* to construct the test from "rather than change from the *n*th method deletion to selective deletion. So he is for easy selections. I am for easy selections. No conflict.

2. Mr. Aitken has said he's for the any-acceptable-word method of scoring cloze tests. So am I. But he did not reply to the problem I raised of where to draw the line of acceptability. Are choices acceptable only because natives would have made them? Natives wouldn't have made the errors I cited on page 7. They are unacceptable grammatically but might be acceptable semantically. The student apparently understood the passage. Should we give him credit or ot? It's a problem we both face in our cloze tests and should not be ignored.

3. Mr. Aitken may have a point that the Carroll study was hasty and inexact. My experience has been that some students, good students, often panic on a cloze test, especially one of average difficulty, and leave a lot of blanks or fill in any word whether it makes sense or not. Many students, used to other types of tests, have balked at cloze tests. Results, in these situations, are not too reliable. A way to overcome this problem is to give the group very easy passages at which all or most of them can be very successful. Then gradually increase the difficulty of the tests so that you finally arrive at a test which discriminates the better from the poorer readers. I have also found in my experience that college students (who perhaps have more motivation) have more reliable scores than high school students-although this is simply an impression, not a scientific study. So, in short, the "special talent at cloze tests" might be in part overcome through more adequate preparation of the students for this type of test.

4. In answer to my point that natives should make high or perfect scores on cloze tests designed for non-natives, Mr. Aitken states, "It seems that this would be more of a language proficiency test than a reading test. This is an attractive possibility, but is this what Williams wants to use cloze tests for?" Answer: Yes. Reading is one component of language; most proficiency tests have listening, speaking, reading, and writing sections. Cloze tests could also be used as prognostic, progress, and achieve-

ment tests, but I have used them as a measure of reading proficiency. Perhaps I should have stressed I was referring to *intermediate to beginning* non-natives, not to those whose English is on the advanced or native levels. Obviously, if an ESL student has native fluency in English, his cloze test will be the same test that his native counterpart would have and both could get less than high scores reflecting their reading ability. --Actually this test would not reflect so much *basic* reading ability as experience with topics, ability to gain inferences, analytical skills, evaluation, etc. For beginning to intermediate students, however, it still seems that as a test of *basic reading skill*, a cloze test should do very well (if they are literate.) True, reading is a composite of many skills, but central to these is the ability to derive meaning (the author's intended meaning) from simple, unsophisticated, non-culturally bound, nontechnical prose on one's language level and within one's sphere of experience. I might add that the native-as-perfect-or-high-scorer seems to be the standard in most ESL listening, speaking, grammar, and writing proficiency tests for beginning to intermediate ESL students. Why should it be unreasonable to expect the same in reading tests?

5. Finally, Mr. Aitken seems to believe that the *n*th word deletion is a more sound and practical method than choosing which words to delete. It's certainly easier. And with good, easy passages some good tests could be made using the *n*th deletion method. I have seen and have made some. But why should this exclude any other approach? It seems to me that a teacher may occasionally wish to test the structural aspect of reading and may wish to choose structural words for deletion. Though the *n*th method can be good and satisfactory, what is wrong with accepting it *and* experimenting with other methods as well?

BOOK REVIEW

Conversation in ENGLISH: Points of Departure
by Julia M. Dobson and Frank Sedwick

Price $2.25

American Book Co., 1975.

This excellent text, suitable for all ESL students above the very beginning level, has fifty well drawn pictures depicting situations upon which student conversation is based. Specific vocabulary, pertinent to each situation is listed under each picture (always listed in the order of verbs, nouns, and other expressions). On the page opposite the picture--all lessons have this two-page format--are questions leading to an analysis of the picture or giving points of departure for conversation. These are followed by five challenging topics for oral or written composition.

This book is a welcome relief from the memorized dialogues and manipulated sentences usually used for structured conversation classes of the completely free talk-what-you-wish and use only-vocabulary-you-know type of classes.

Teachers, or students, may choose the topics that are pertinent or that interest them as each lesson is a self contained unit with no interdependence on other lessons.

Alice C Pack

letters to the editor . . .

Clarification

"Talk and Listen" by Richard Via appeared in the *TESL Reporter* Volume 8 No. 4 Summer 1975 edition, page 6.

Several people have asked me to explain the cards to them. The confusion was caused because my paper had A's lines on one side of the page and B's on the other, the printer read straight across the page and set it up as it appears in the *Reporter.* Perhaps a simple note will clarify this point for others. All that needs to be said is the unindented lines should be on one card and the indented lines on the other. Happily the double set is okay.

Richard Via

Saipan

Having recently read your Spring issue of *TESL Reporter,* I began wondering whether or not it would be possible for you to send one issue to each of the six District Language Arts Specialists in Micronesia whenever your publication comes out. That your own student body and your research staff deal primarily in cross cultural communication and specific problems is of major consideration in language arts development in Micronesia. We could benefit from readings in your *Reporter.*

Wisconsin

I have been receiving the *TESL Reporter* for some time and have been very impressed with the wonderful articles contained therein. I have eleven itinerant English as a Second Language teachers on my staff, and would like to have them have the advantage of having a copy sent to them. Would you please indicate what the subscription rate would be for receipt of eleven copies?

Arizona

I was recently introduced to your fine publication, the *TESL Reporter.* I am involved in a secondary school reading program and would like to be included on

(continued on page 16)

Toward Communicative Competence

(continued from page 7)

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TESL REPORTER

A quarterly publication of the English Language Institute and the BATESL program of the Brigham Young University--Hawaii Campus.

Editor . . . . . .Alice C. Pack
Staff . . .Api Hemi, Kenyon Moss
William Gallagher

Articles relevant to teaching English as a Second Language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 157, Brigham Young University--Hawaii Campus, Laie, Oahu, Hawaii 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding six pages.

BOOK REVIEW

New Horizons in English, Texts, Teacher;s Guides and Workbooks, Levels 1-5

Lars Mellgren and Michael Walker. Addison--Wesley Publishing Co., 1973

The final books in the series *New Horizons in English*, by Lars Mellgren and Michael Walker, have just been published. The whole set (six units in all) of student books, workbooks, teachers' guides, tape recordings, and charts is thorough, carefully planned and presented, and eminently entertaining. It is easily the best set of ESL materials I have seen.

In a note at the beginning of the student books, Mellgren and Walker say that there object is to teach English so that it can be used "in everyday situations. . . . The language should be used--and used in a meaningful way."

To make the students *use* English, the books, and accompanying teachers' guides, emphasize dialogues. The teacher is instructed to break the class up periodically into pairs or small groups and then to monitor discussion. There are many games and activities which involve dialogue, many questions to be answered, many situations contrived to evoke student response.

As I mentioned earlier, these materials are entertaining. So much of the dread of learning a second language is based upon the nagging rote that is involved--the monotony of the language lab, the memorizing, the sifting through of bi-lingual dictionaries to figure out the end of a story you weren't interested in anyway. Some of this is surely involved in all second language study, but *New Horizons* plays it down.

There are drawings, hundreds of them, in both the texts and workbooks. Stories are illustrated with provocative scenes that the students will want to read about. Much of the material is humorous or strange (there are ghosts and monsters in these pages).

The accompanying tapes have many voices and appropriate background sounds (traffic, weather, party noises); and there are nuances in the voices that express meanings the books themselves only hint at. There are many good jokes and comic endings to stories. (Since humor is such a cultural thing, this could be thought a weakness because the teacher would often have the apparently hopeless task of explaining the punch line. I see this as valuable, however, because of the acculturation that must result. To really understand a culture is to be able to laugh at its jokes.)

Before I convince you that *New Horizons* is a set of comic books, let me point out that these trappings are there to benefit the student. This makes the instructor's job a little more fun, but no easier. The teachers' guides are very extensive, and as long as the texts. Every possible suggestion to improve class work and to sustain student interest is explained in detail. Even a novice in the TESL field can have success if he follows the guides closely. But he must familiarize himself with the program, read aloud the prose and pronunciation sections, take an active roll in games and dramatized dialogues, and test the students continually (self-tests for students come after each two chapters, but there are many other tests and quizzes which can be given).

The teacher must, in short, work almost as hard as Mellgren and Walker have in presenting this excellent ESL series.

Steven Goldsberry

letters to the editor

(continued from page 14)
the mailing list for your publication. Keep up the good work.

Singapore

I am at this moment reading a number of articles from your *TESL Reporter* and enjoying them very much. The thought has suddenly occured to me that I should tell you how much I appreciate receiving your quarterly, and also that RELC has changed its address--something that I should have done a long time ago.

The Philippines

We, the teachers and administrators of the school composed of 160 teachers are very thankful for the copy of the *TESL Reporter* sent us. We discovered that this is the very very magazine that would help us, for English is a second language to us . . . May I also request if you can send us copies of the *TESL Reporter* from 1973 to the present. Please let me know also as to how much I shall remit for the copies you will send us. With our very sincere gratitude and thanks.

Illinois

I am a TESL teacher of adults in Chicago. Our students come from thirty-four different countries. Recently I had the good fortune of seeing two copies of the *TESL Reporter.* I would like to be on the mailing list, but do not have any idea of the subscription cost. If it is possible, I would like to receive a copy of each of the *TESL Reporters* for the last year, too.

Laos

Will you please put me on your mailing list for the *TESL Reporter?* Please let me know if there is any charge involved. Is it possible to get about 10 copies of each issue so that I can distribute them among the teachers of English in the provinces of Laos?

Unfortunately, mail to Laos no longer goes through. (Editor)

Japan

We are very pleased with your cooperative response as we are eager to exchange our ideas on how to plan English teaching programs in Japan since our school is one of the most progressive English conversation teaching schools in the Kansai area.

Incidentally, we would like to let you know that it is more advantageous for me to receive your publication at our school than to do so individually.

I have enjoyed receiving and reading the *TESL Reporter* very much during the past few months. I have already found many ideas contained in the articles to be not only interesting but of great practical value in the classroom. Is there anyway I can continue to receive the *Reporter* while I'm overseas? I'll gladly pay any postage charges involved.

Taiwan

I find your *TESL Reporter* is of great value and conducive to our innovations in English teaching. It is my hope that I may receive the publication for the following issues. If a subscription should be made, please let me know the subscription rates.

Interested educators may receive the *TESL Reporter* by mail, without charge, by sending name and address to Box 157, Brigham Young University--Hawaii Campus Laie, Hawaii, 96762. Be sure to include zip code if served by United States mail.

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TWO CAUSES FOR MISAPPLICATION OF LANGUAGE RULES

By David C. Butler

Incorrect application of rules in a foreign language may stem from at least two basic causes: (1) failure to master the operational or transformational component of a rule, and (2) failure to learn a rule's true domain of applicability (see Landa, 1974).

An example of the first problem is a student of English as a second language who does not know how to form the present perfect tense or how to nominatize and embed one sentence in another. The second problem is illustrated by a student who does not know in what semantic contexts–what communication situations–present perfect tense is required or who can not identify the features of sentences which make application of a given sentence–combining rule either appropriate or inappropriate. This second problem is the more perplexing one for the student.

A math example may help illustrate the importance of coming to grips with teaching a rule's true domain of applicability (see Scandura, 1973, p. 173). Suppose I give a student a neat rule for summing a long arithmetic number series such as 4+7+10+13+. . . +n or 1+6+11+16+. . .+n. The rule is add the first term in the series to the last term, divide by 2, and multiply the result by the number of terms in the series: ([(F+L) /2] N). We might assume the student has mastered all he needs to know when he has demonstrated

(continued on page 4)

Dr. Butler is instructional psychologist and coordinator of off-campus programs for the Division of Communication and Language Arts, BYU-HC. He has a dual background in linguistics and instructional design, having completed an MA in linguistics as an East-West Center student at the University of Hawaii and a PhD in Instructional Psychology at the Brigham Young University in Utah.

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REFLECTIONS OF A LANGUAGE LEARNER

by Beverly McLeod

The department of English as a Second Language of the University of Hawaii requires its students in the Masters program to enroll in a foreign language course in order to appreciate the experience of the language learner.

During the past two years, I have taken both Japanese and Thai courses at the University of Hawaii, and I am currently involved in a tutoring situation on a one-to-one basis in which I am learning French. In addition, in past years I have studied Latin, French, Spanish, German, Japanese, and Thai for varying lengths of time and by various methods. The following are some of my reflections on my experiences as a language student.

First of all, I would like to offer my reactions to my own language learning experiences in general. My experiences have been generally pleasant. I have never had the feeling of being forced to take a language, and I have never taken language courses just to satisfy a requirement. Thus, I have always felt that I was taking the language course out of my own free choice, which I am sure had a positive effect on my motivation. Probably as a consequence, I have always enjoyed studying languages, and I have always done well, at least as far as success is measured by tests of classroom performance. Thus I was not consciously aware of the many problems which students are said to face in language classes, the anxiety, the feeling of frustration and failure. I, myself, had these kinds of feelings when I attempted to use the language outside the classroom, but in the classroom situation, while I felt nervous some of the time, I didn't see it as a big problem. Perhaps I have been lucky also in that I have had for the most part "good" teachers. None has been authoritarian, rigid, unsympathetic. Some have been excellent. From this background, I would like to say more specifically what I have learned from the experience of being a student which will help me to be a better teacher.

First of all, having been a student has given me an appreciation of the students' position and feelings. From having observed my fellow students, I know that some of them were considerably more frightened and bewildered than I, and of course I have experienced the same reactions in other classes. Some of the students were also bored much of the time, and I have also been bored in language classes, especially when repetitive drills dragged on and on. I have realized that what is interesting to the teacher may be boring to the student, and there is a need to vary the activities often to keep all of the students interested, not just those whose motivation will carry them through anything. I have become more sensitive to the kinds of techniques and settings which are interesting, and less tolerant of those which are inherently boring. Also, I can judge more accurately the length of time necessary to learn different aspects of the language, and the relative difficulty of various items.

I have learned several things that I will try to avoid in my classroom. For example, I, as a student, find it very difficult to read a passage aloud for the first time and then to translate it. I cannot concentrate on pronunciation and meaning at the same time. I think that many teachers do not realize how difficult this task is, because it is relatively easy to read a short, simple passage in one's own language, and be able to comprehend it simultaneously. But it is quite another matter when you try to do it in a foreign language. Also, I will be wary of manipulation drills which produce unreal sentences. For example, a sentence may be perfectly acceptable in the declarative, but when the drill calls for making as many questions as possible from that sentence, some of the questions, although grammatically correct, are unnatural and would never be said by native speakers. Such drills are not only useless, but also possibly confusing.

Another thing which I have come to realize is that some exercises, while purporting to test the students' comprehension, progress, or ability, are really only testing the students'

facility at manipulating forms. The students I taught in Thailand were amazingly skillful at any kind of drill which was presented to them, but they would invariably miss an item from the same drill if it were in isolation on a test. I have also experienced as a student the kind of mental acrobatics which many drills require, and am able to do what is asked without any comprehension of what I'm saying. This seems to be especially true under the conditions which are typical of such drills, in which the teacher forces the students to do them as rapidly as possible. Perhaps if the pace were slowed a little, the students would have a chance to think about what they were saying.

I would like to describe more specifically some of the good techniques which I've observed in the various classes I've taken. First of all, out of all the teachers I've had, those I remember most fondly are also those from whom I learned the most. I have had three teachers who were middle-aged women, and who presented sort of a mother-image to me. They were warm, encouraging, non-threatening, and personally interested in the students. They were also willing to reveal themselves as real persons, not just as teachers, by telling anecdotes from their own or their family's experiences, or telling of their own foibles and amusing mistakes in learning English. I find that I learned best from such "motherly" types, and when my own motivation lagged, I kept working so as not to disappoint "mother's" hopes and expectations for me. Regardless of whether or not second language learning is like native language learning, surely there is some psychological connection between the two for the learner, and recreating the emotional, if not the cognitive or enviromental conditions of first language learning, may facilitate learning of a second language.

One of the good techniques, or rather talents, used by one of my teachers was her ability to draw out the students' knowledge in directed informal conversation. She talked very little, supplying only the minimal help necessary, but somehow the conversation flowed on and on, and students said things which they hadn't believed they were capable of saying. One often sees such a talent in good discussion leaders; they are able to control the discussion with a light touch, an appropriate word here and there, while letting the participants do all the talking. Too often in language classes, the free conversation time ends up being a monologue by the teacher, and the students don't get sufficient time to practice. I was very impressed by this particular teacher's technique; it was almost as if she "tricked" the students into revealing their knowledge and ability, and they would often be surprised at how much they were able to say. This technique seemed to work much more effectively than that of confronting the students directly, putting them on the spot and demanding that they perform correctly.

Another thing which contributed to the relaxed atmosphere in this teacher's class was her encouragement of the students to work cooperatively and help each other when help was needed, rather than competing against each other. She tried to arrange the seating so that a slow learner would be seated next to one who tended to catch on quickly, and during the lulls in the class, the better student could assist the slower one.

I am the type of learner who tries to connect a new item to something which I have learned before, and I am always inventing relationships, correct or not, between items. I often feel like asking the teacher for confirmation, for example, whether this new vocabulary item is a synonym of the one we learned two weeks ago, and if not, how they differ in meaning. This particular teacher was always very tolerant of my questioning, and quite willing to explain relationships. She also did this on her own, making an effort to connect new material with that learned previously. It was not a matter of a five-minute review of yesterday's lesson at the beginning of class, but while she was introducing a new item, she pointed out its relation to something which we had already covered. I found this very effective, and it gave me a better feel for what I was learning as an integrated system. I have found that my short term memory is much better than my long term one, and thus I tend to forget easily what was covered a few weeks back. This teacher's method of reviewing old material in the new context helped to keep it fresh in my mind.

The teacher also used this technique in correcting student mistakes. If the student made a mistake, she corrected it, had him repeat the correct form, and then went on to another student. But later in the period, or even the next day or the next week, she would ask the same student a question of the

same type, in order to review for him the correct form of the item which he had missed. She was able to remember each student's weak points over a long period of time, so that she didn't waste time asking students questions which were too easy for them, but judged precisely what level of difficulty or what area would be appropriate for each student. A course in memory training would certainly be useful for language teachers!

In any activity, the teacher encouraged the students to stretch their usage of the language to the limits of their knowledge, for example, by encouraging them to paraphrase if they had forgotten a word or pattern. I learned from this teacher that it is just as important for a teacher to know the right questions to ask to elicit the maximum response as it is to know the right answers.

It is a valuable experience to be able to look at one's profession "from the other end" and I have certainly learned a great deal about teaching from being a student. Perhaps the most important thing is to be able to keep that awareness in mind of how it is to be a student, to be able to put oneself in the student's position when trying out new techniques, to be able to answer the question, "How would I like it?"

Missapplication of Language Rules

(continued from page 1)

the ability to sum any arithmetic number series we give him. But notice the artificial nature of this task. In the real world, no one is going to be around to tell our student which number series are arithmetic, and which are not. The rule given above will not work at all for series like the following: 2+4+8+ 16+32+. . .+n or 3+7+15+31+. . .+n. It is obvious that the student must learn some kind of procedure for identifying the indicative features of situations where the rule given above is appropriate. If those features are not present, then he must search for some other summing rule. In the case of the rule given above, the indicative feature is whether or not there is a constant numerical difference between terms in the series.

In an actual lesson for teaching present perfect tense to intermediate students of English as a second language, the teacher might begin by pointing out the need for instruction

Teacher:

In this lesson, you're going to solve the following kind of communication problem. This is the situation. You go to a club meeting and meet one of the members. Is it appropriate to ask him the following question: "How long have you been a member of the club?"

Student:

It's appropriate.

Teacher.

You're right. Listen to another example. You are talking to the president of a large company and he tells you that he used to be the janitor. Is the following question appropriate: "How long have you been janitor?"

Student:

I'm not sure.

Teacher:

This question is *not* appropriate.You are telling the company president that you think he is still the janitor.

At this point, the teacher might want to review or introduce the operational component of the rule.

Teacher:

In this lesson, you're going to learn about forms such as *have been, have worked, has studied,* and so forth. Then you will learn when to use these forms. Notice the chart on the board labled *Present Perfect.* When we ask, *"How long have you been a member of the club?"* or say, *"She has studied piano for five years."* we are using present perfect. Notice that we use *has* with subjects like *he, she, it, Mr. Davis, the student.* But with subjects like *I, you, they, we, Mr. and Mrs. Davis, the students* we use *have.*

Now you should be ready to teach the decision-making capability (Scandura, 1973, p.173) which is necessary for correct use of the present perfect. You need to teach the two indicative freatures for this rule Previous Action AND Current Relevance.

Teacher:
When do we use the present perfect?
We use it when a previous action (point to time line chart on the board) is directly related to the present. Notice there are two necessary things: Previous Action AND Related to the Present.
Listen to this situation. John began playing ping pong three years ago. He is still an active player. Listen to John: "I've played ping pong for about three years." Is his statement appropriate?

Student:
Yes.

Teacher:
That's right. It's a previous action and it's also related to the present. Listen to another situation. Mark was a member of the Blue Key club for one year. He didn't like the club so he joined the Red Key club about six years ago. Listen to Mark: "I was a Blue Key for just one year, then I have joined the Red Key club." Is Mark's last statement all right?

Student:
It sounds funny.

Teacher:
Which of these is missing? (Points to the indicative features: Previous Action AND Related to the Present)

Student:
It's a previous action but it's not related to the present.

Teacher:
Very good.

After students have demonstrated listening mastery for present perfect, the teacher may then proceed to design speaking activities where the communication setting makes it either appropriate or inappropriate to use the present perfect forms.

Instead of teaching the present perfect, suppose you want to teach students how to add more information to their sentences through nominalization and embedding. Again it seems important to teach not only the structural manipulation and word order changes but also an explicit procedure for determining the set of situations to which the sentence-combining rules may be applied. In an exercise in Crymes, James, Smith, and Taylor (1974, p. 89), one finds the following sentence pair to be combined using *that* or *to:*

He supposed SOMETHING. The similarity between proverbs is significant. (He supposed that the similarity between proverbs is significant) OR (He supposed the similarity between proverbs to be significant).

Then on page 100, one finds the following sentence pair to be combined using an *ing* nominalization:

Some folk remedies may keep you from SOMETHING. You would get sick. (Some folk remedies may keep you from ger ing sick).

Suppose the student is in a situation where the appropriate rule to be used is not indicated by the instructions for the exercise. Unless we teach the student to identify the features of sentences which make application of a given rule either appropriate or in appropriate, there is nothing to prevent him from generating the following ungrammatical sentences:

*He supposed the similarity between proverbs being significant.
*Some folk remedies may keep you from that you would get sick.

While it is probably easier to teach the operational component of language rules, the more challenging task of teaching a rule's true domain of applicability must not be slighted.

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SOME GAMES FOR TEACHING BEGINNING TESL

by Judy E. Winn-Bell Olsen

PROBLEM:

What to do with a class labeled "ESL 1" that has *all* the following types of students:

those who are, at best, semi-literate;

those who have just gotten off the plane and don't know a word of English;
those who have been here for years and can communicate reasonably effectively in broken English;
those who really know a lot more than they'll admit, but don't want to be pushed very far very fast;
those who are highly motivated to learn as much as they can as fast as they can;
those who are in class mainly because it's a more enjoyable way to live out the rest of their years than sitting at home looking at four walls;
those who are there on time every, every day so they won't miss a single word you say;
those who straggle in during the first half hour of class and often leave 10 or 15 minutes early;
all of whom speak the same language, so they don't need English to communicate with each other.

How best to meet the needs of all of these types of students while maintaining general class interest and some semblance of unity?

What has worked best for me so far this semester has been 20-40 minutes daily of *bingo games* of three types:

1) Number Bingo
2) Spelling Bingo ("Quizmo")
3) Vocabulary Bingo

The important thing here, of course, is not the game itself as much as the communication activities that go on before, during and after the game. More about that later. First, an explanation of the games and how to use them.

1) NUMBER BINGO--can be bought almost any place games are sold--Usually marketed as "Bingo."

We sometimes forget that *really* knowing the numbers past 10, when we hear them out of sequence, is a somewhat difficult task. Just try it on yourself in a foreign language you've studied. So this activity is more than just "funzies" for the beginning--and some not-so-beginning--students.

a) Have the students repeat the numbers after you, for pronunciation practice. You can take a few minutes out here and there for quick pronunciation drills on problems such as the "f/th" sounds for Chinese students, with numbers like "53" and "35" when they come up. After all, the game is really a means to an end.

b) Be sure to keep tract of the numbers you've called. If some of the class members are having trouble recognizing the numbers on the cards, you might write the numbers on the board for a game or two. When someone says he has bingo, have him read off the numbers to be really sure he's got it (and for further pronunciation practice).

c) The next round, have the winner become the number-caller, if you think he's ready for it. More opportunity for directed pronunciation practice--you're right there to help the student if he stumbles and to repeat and clarify any numbers that the others can't understand.

d) When the class really gets going, you can also have the number-callers give out prizes while you talk about what they're doing. "Who is he giving the prize to?" "Should she give the prize to . . . . .?" "Why?" "Class, tell him/her to . . . . ." "(Name of number-caller), ask the class about what you're doing," etc.

2) SPELLING BINGO or LETTER BINGO (marketed as "Quizmo" by Milton Bradley Company.)

This one is more easily directed by the teacher than by students, but there are many ways

to handle it.

a) Name the letters. For a very beginning literacy class, have the alphabet on the wall or blackboard and ask the students to point out the letters in the alphabet before finding them on their cards. This helps the slower students without making them self-conscious. This is great for contrasting letters that beginning students confuse easily, like b/v, i/e, v/w, p/q, b/d, g/j. But after a few rounds of this, it gets pretty old.

b) Ask "What letter makes the sound /b/? The sound /p/?" "What letter can make all these sounds- /o/, /ɔ/, /ə/, /ʊ/, and /ɛ/?" (answer: the letter o, as in home, dog, come, woman, and women.) "What letters together make the sound /ʧ/? (c,h) "What different letters can sound like /ʤ/?" (j,g) etc.

Judy Winn-Bell Olsen has an ESL Certificate and a MA in English from UCLA. She has taught ESL in Los Angeles and is currently at Alemany Community College Education Center in San Francisco, where the games mentioned in the article were developed.

Good for reinforcing the idea that most letters in English stand for more than one sound, and that the same sound can sometimes be represented by different letters.

c) Prompt the class with such questions as "What's the first letter in bus? The second letter? The third letter?"

Good for spelling and review. Hold up a picture: "What's this? What's the first letter in its name?" etc. Also good for teaching "first, second, third, last" etc. in text.

We've used this last game at the Alemany student Christmas parties the past couple of years, with great success. We get one of the advanced classes to make sets of "call-cards" so that we can just run through and call them out without thinking on that rather hectic day.

To have a class help you make the "call-cards": Give each student 26 slips of paper and an envelope. Then ask them to write any word with *a* in it on one slip, underline the *a* and put it in the envelope. Then write any word with *b* on it on another slip, underline the *b*, put it in the envelope, and so on. Then during the bingo game, you've got x number of sets of call-cards that you can just read off: "the second letter in man" "the first letter in beautiful" . . .whatever is on the slips of paper. You can use a different set for each game. On the harder words, the more advanced students playing can help the beginners.

For bingo prizes at the Christmas party, we got donations from the teachers of all their old white elephants, which were wrapped by loving, and frantic hands in the office and put in a large grab bag. Watching the winner of each game choose his prize and unwrap it is part of the whole production.

3) VOCABULARY BINGO: This requires more preparation on the teacher's part, but I think it's well worth it.

a) First, make up a large bingo-grid (25 squares) on a ditto master. (No words, just the squares.) Run off as many copies as you can.

b) Take 25-40 vocabulary items already learned in class that you want the students to review. (I also use high-frequency short phrases, such as "to us", "yes, he does" "no, I'm not", "her book", etc.) Write each word on a separate slip of paper and put it in an envelope - you will choose the slips at random when you "call" the game.

c) Here's the tedious part: Write these words in random order on the grids. (I'd suggest making ten fifteen more copies than you have students on an average day.) You can do it fastest and most neatly if you type the words as you draw slips from the envelope, occasionally re-shuffling the slips.

d). When calling the words, you can vary the procedure by showing a picture of the object instead of naming it or asking such questions as "Are we playing bingo?" "Does he have a bingo card?" Where the answers ("Yes, we are" "Yes, he does") are the phrase-items they must look for.

If you do this for every new unit or chapter you cover, pretty soon you'll have a

nice bunch of bingo-sets for vocabulary review and for the next time you teach the class. You can make sets to cover special groups of words, like parts of the body, kinds of food, different forms of a verb in a particular tense and the appropriate time-words. . .whatever is important to you.

This last game is also good for more advanced classes, where you can give students an empty grid, dictate the words, which they must write on the grids, in random order, and then begin the actual game.

CAUTION: For any semi-literate students in your class, this last bingo game is much harder than the number-game or spelling-game. *Do* circulate among the students as you call the words, and determine who is having trouble. Show them the slip of paper you have just read and let them compare it with what's on their paper. Talk about what's happening—they'll be talking to each other in their own language(s). Gently guide them into English. ("Do you have it? Let's see. . .No, you don't have it." or "Yes, you do. You have it. I can see it. Keep looking. . .Do you see it now? That's it. Please read it to me. Good!")

I've really been excited to see how this has sparked some of my older non-readers. They're really trying now, and doing better all the time. They are so proud of themselves when they find a word without help from me or other students.

But, as mentioned earlier, the important part is not the game itself (except maybe in this last case) but the communication that can go on before, during, and after the game. There are lots of "situational reinforcement" possibilities, as well as opportunities for contextualized pronunciation practice. (Prime example: correcting the Cantonese speaker's "fank you" to "thank you" when he is given a

(continued on page 18)

BOOK REVIEW

Ronald Mackin. *A Short Course in Spoken English.* **Price: $3.50**
Oxford University Press and Language Services 1975.

This text, intended for students who have studied English but have not achieved mastery of the spoken form, offers a fresh approach to teaching English conversation.

Ten units, each containing "Texts," drills, and written exercises, based on the main difficulties of the English verb, are graded grammatically (some other grammatical points are also included).

The "Texts" are always presented in two ways: groups of single utterances and dialogues. Both are supplemented with pictures. Tapes present the dialogues three times, giving the student an opportunity to listen, repeat, and then take the part of one of the speakers.

Drills are used to focus on the grammatical structure(s) presented in the dialogues.

Writing exercises, based on the "Texts" and drills are various types: transformational, fill in the blank, multiple choice, etc.

This text with its tapes could be a welcome change for students and teachers where a language lab is available, but it would be a challenge to use if there are no tape facilities.

Kenyon Moss

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BOOK REVIEW

Developing Fluency in English

Price: $4.95 Paperback

by Ruth Crymes, Gary James, Larry Smith and Harvey Taylor
Prentice-Hall, 1974

This book is appropriately advertized as being designed for high-intermediate to advanced students of English as a second language as the average readability level of the nine reading texts in the book is twelfth grade. (This is the grade level required for *complete* comprehension according to the G. H. McLaughlin readability formula. The corresponding Dale-Chall level would be about tenth grade since Dale-Chall uses a less severe criterion: "The grade at which a book or article can be read with understanding.")

There are several features that should make this a useful text for the more advanced student. The book is divided into two basic parts: *Performing in English* and *Developing Competence in English*. In the first part, communication activities for reading, listening, and speaking are emphasized without explicit attention to rules or structural models. The authors focus on what is said rather than on how it is said. Each of the nine lessons is centered around a single topic such as proverbs, nonverbal communication, propaganda, etc. The topics are well suited for stimulating discussion across cultures among college age students.

An innovative feature of this part of the book is the Discussion Text. In each lesson the topic is presented in a brief summary, then amplified in the reading text, and finally paraphrased in a listening text. The latter uses the spoken forms of the language in the mode of a somewhat informal lecture. In contrast, the Discussion Text presents an unrehearsed, unedited discussion of the lesson topic including the false starts and pause words that are typical in natural conversation. This seems to provide a useful kind of listening practice that is usually ignored in ESL texts. Each lesson also includes a list of five or six speaking activities for the class and a vocabulary study section.

The second part of the book is primarily concerned with helping students become proficient in combining sentences through nominalization and embedding. This latter part of the book is made up of nine sentence study sections corresponding to the nine lessons in part one. The sentence combining practice is intended to help students add more information to their sentences through productive use of the full resources of the language. Students learn to turn sentences into subjects, objects, complements, and passives in various ways. Along with the sentence-combining exercises, each of the study sections has an excellent exercise called *What About Meaning?* Completion of this exercise requires the student to carefully consider the precise meanings communicated by the embedded sentences.

The second part of the book would be improved by providing students with an explicit procedure for identifying the characteristics of sentences which make it appropriate or inappropriate to apply one of the sentence-combining rules introduced by the authors. Without such a procedure, students may attempt to nominalize and embed sentences for which a given rule was never intended. (See the article in this issue of the *TESL Reporter* "Two Causes for Misapplication of Language Rules.")

David C. Butler

DISTINGUISHING TWO TYPES OF SENTENCES BY RETRIEVAL

by Yao Shen

This short article demonstrates four grammatical features in a simple predicate in English. Two of them are obligatory; the other two are not. All four features are illustrated with examples in a statement.

The two obligatory features in the predicate of an English statement are 1. tense (present or past and NO other, because English has no other tense), and 2. the verb (usually a word with a lexical meaning). In a simple predicate, tense occurs only once, and the verb also occurs only once.

When there is only one word in the predicate, both tense and verb occur in the same word.

Peter studie-*s*. (Present tense of verb *study*)
Kathy write-*s*. (Present tense of verb *write*)

Peter studie-*d*. (Past tense of verb *study*)
Kathy wrote. (Past tense of verb *write*)

A modal or an auxiliary or both (modal and/or auxiliary) may precede the verb, in which case, a verb string is formed. A verb string consists of a specifically related string of words (modal and/or auxiliary + verb) in which the modal or the auxiliary carrying tense begins the string, and the verb ends (terminates) it.

	Present			Verb
Peter	will			study.
Peter	had			studied.
Peter	is			studying.
Peter	does			study.
Peter	will		be	studying.
Peter	has		been	studying.
Peter	will	have	been	studying.
	Past			Verb
Kathy	would			write.
Kathy	has			written.
Kathy	was			writing.
Kathy	did			write.
Kathy	would	have		written.
Kathy	would		be	writing.
Kathy	had		been	writing.
Kathy	would	have	been	writing.

While the verb and the verb string are always co-terminous, the verb and the predicate are not. When the verb is followed by a complement, the complement and the predicate are co-terminous.

	Verb	Complement
Peter	studies	English.
Peter	studies	in class.
Peter	studies	everyday.
Peter	studies	carefully.
Peter	studies	because of interest.
Peter	studies	English in class everyday carefully because of interest.

	Verb	Complement
Kathy	wrote	letters.
Kathy	wrote	at home.
Kathy	wrote	on Sunday.
Kathy	wrote	regularly.
Kathy	wrote	for the family.
Kathy	wrote	letters at home on Sunday regularly for the family.

Let us now examine the four grammatical features in a simple predicate: tense, the verb, modal and/or auxiliary, and the complement in each of the following four different kinds of examples.

1. Predicate = tense + verb:
   Peter studies.
   Kathy wrote.
2. Predicate = tense + modal and/or auxiliary + verb:
   Peter will have been studying.
   Kathy would have been writing.
3. Predicate = tense + verb + complement:
   Peter studies English in class everyday carefully because of interest.
   Kathy wrote letters at home on Sunday regularly for the family.
4. Predicate = tense + modal and/or auxiliary + verb + complement:
   Peter will have been studying English in class everyday carefully because of interest.
   Kathy would have been writing letters at home on Sunday regularly for the family.

When the verb is not followed by a complement, the verb and the predicate are co-terminous.

	Verb
Peter	studies.

Peter will have been studying.

	Verb
Kathy	wrote.

Kathy would have been writing.

In each of the four kinds of predicates, tense and the verb both occur (1, 2, 3, 4); they are obligatory features. The occurrence of modal and/or auxiliary nevertheless, is optional. If modal and or auxiliary are added (+ modal and/or auxiliary) preceding the verb, a verb string is formed with tense carried by the modal or the auxiliary (2, 4). If none ($\emptyset$) is added (+ $\emptyset$), there is no verb string; tense is carried by the verb (1,3). The occurrence of a complement is also optional. If a complement is added (+ complement) following the verb, the complement and the predicate are co-terminous (3, 4). If no complement ($\emptyset$) is added (+ $\emptyset$), the verb and the predicate are co-terminous (1,2).

The predicate of an English statement begins with tense (1, 2, 3, 4), and in the predicate there is a verb (1, 2, 3, 4). In a simple predicate, tense occurs only once (1, 2, 3, 4), and the verb also occurs only once (1, 2, 3, 4).

In conclusion, then, the following formula should be clear.

A simple predicate in English=

$$\text{tense} \begin{Bmatrix} + \text{ modal and/or auxiliary} \\ +\emptyset \end{Bmatrix} + \text{verb} \begin{Bmatrix} + \text{ complement} \\ +\emptyset \end{Bmatrix}$$

The syntactic arrangement of the two obligatory features and the two optional features in a simple predicate in English is represented with the obligatory features given outside the braces and the optional ones inside the braces.

Note: This is the first of a series of three articles.

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GENERATING LANGUAGE THROUGH MEDIA

AUDIO-VISUAL PRODUCTION BY THE ESL STUDENT

By Linda New Levine

This is the second of a two-part article. The beginning installment of "Generating Language Through Media" appeared in the Fall 1975 issue of **The TESL Reporter.**

Another exciting student production technique is the filmstrip. Filmstrip production is one area where we can utilize the artistic talents of our students. In producing a filmstrip, the special materials needed are minimal. Each filmstrip requires one or two feet of U Film, a commerically produced product with a dull finish on which students may draw or print using a pencil, pen, felt tip marker, or typewriter. Planning sheets come with the U Film so that students may preplan their filmstrip accurately before they begin drawing on the actual film.

Filmstrips may be prepared on a wide variety of topics. They may be informative or done in cartoon style as a form of entertainment. As in the case of slide shows, filmstrips may illustrate a grammatical point or be in the form of a picture show. However, the show is limited or enhanced by the quality and creativity of the student drawings. Filmstrips can be most effective when done as a visual dialog in cartoon style. If your students are studying ways of buying things in the store, suggest that students prepare a dialog based on a store situation and produce a cartoon filmstrip to illustrate it. Any dialog used in a classroom situation can usually be illustrated through means of a student prepared filmstrip. Once again, the goal of filmstrip production should be presentation to the class with a filmstrip projector onto a movie screen.

Students working on filmstrip production must prepare their filmstrip together, aid each other in the production techniques, and cooperate on writing a script which they can tape as an audio accompaniment to the filmstrip. If students have had adequate classroom practice in the target structures and vocabulary, the verbal interaction that occurs as part of the student work sessions will provide valuable experience in using the new language as a skill to complete tasks. Work sessions of this type also encourage the high density of interpersonal communication needed in language learning.

Filmstrips that are produced without an audio soundtrack may use a musical background, or they may be completely silent and rely on the printed message on the filmstrip itself. Filmstrips of this type may be used to generate discussion in the class as students question each other on what they have seen and discuss the topic more thoroughly. Teachers may find that some students react well to classroom conversations of this type, participating quite freely. Others do not, however, and may feel better about speaking before a class when their speech comes from a tape recorder as an accompaniment to a slide or filmstrip presentation.

A fourth technique for student involvement in media for the purpose of increasing conversational competence is the student production of movies. For this project, the students will need a Super 8 movie camera, preferably one that is light in weight and fairly simple to use, and a roll of Super 8 movie film. If the topic of the film will accommodate shooting the movie outside, then special lights and special film are not necessary. However, student films may be

produced indoors without special lighting equipment by using a high speed film. It is advisable, however, to use a tripod which will eliminate the jerky motions common to most amateur movies.

Movies are especially appropriate to topics involving motion, for example, sports events or a movie on My Typical Day which would illustrate particular verb tenses such as the simple present, or the simple past.

Movies are also a good means of illustrating a student prepared classroom dialog. Props can be used to designate the various characters such as an apron for the store clerk, and a coat, hat, and shopping bag for the customer. Elaborate background scenery is not necessary but a setting may be indicated by the use of a sign such as "Quiet–Hospital Zone" or "Mario's Fruit Market." When creating a movie dialog or a role-play situation, the student actors must act out the dialog twice, first as it is being filmed, and second, as it is recorded onto a tape recorder in order to provide an audio accompaniment to their movie. In this way, target structures receive extensive practice as the actors must know their lines fairly well before they go in front of the camera.

Movie production requires accurate planning. Students must decide what scenes they will shoot and for how long, keeping in mind that one roll of film produces a three minute movie. The work and planning sessions required for a project of this type give students adequate experience in using the new language as a skill. Conversational competence develops as a result of verbal interaction that is planned and prepared for by the teacher in advance.

The tape recorder is a technique of student production which I have already discussed as an aid or an accompaniment to slide shows, filmstrips, and movies. Tape recorders may also be used to produce shows in their own right and without visual accompaniment. ESL classes studying the simple past tense might prepare a radio style news program in which they announce the news of the day. The news material may come from a newspaper or be manufactured by the students to create comical effects. Students studying vocabulary relating to weather may announce the day's weather and make their predictions for the next day. The simple present tense may be practiced in a radio interview with a famous personality. In the interview, Mr. X may be asked questions about what he does in his occupation. The question pattern using do and does would also apply to the interview situation. The tape recording can be turned into a "Twenty Questions" type game if Mr. X remains unidentified and the rest of the class is asked to guess his name or his occupation. This kind of activity provides a good review of various questioning structures while providing the high density of verbal interaction required for developing conversational competence.

The student produced tapes can be catalogued in the classroom or school library for later retrieval. They can easily be listened to by individual students throughout the day if a small junction box and earphones are provided for individual listening.

The last area of student production which I will discuss is that of student-made overhead transparencies, color-lift transparencies, and dittos. An overhead transparency is a sheet of clear acetate which can be written or drawn on and then projected onto a screen through the use of an overhead projector. Overhead transparencies may be made by students to illustrate a talk they are giving to the class, for example, a student-made map of Italy for a student's discussion of his native country. These talks may be prepared by small groups of students in work sessions, thus providing for verbal interaction among the students involved. Student talks may also be delivered extemporaneously by individual students. In this situation, teacher guidance may be provided in one of two ways: prior to the delivery of the talk or during the talk itself in the form of informal questioning. Transparencies may also be used to facilitate practicing dialogs as when students produce a map of the streets and shopping areas in their town and ask directions of other students in the class.

Color-lift transparencies are also projected onto a screen with an overhead projector. With a color-lift transparency, however, students are able to lift the images and colors from magazine photographs onto a clear Contact sheet. The photographs used must have a clay base. If a chalky substance comes off when you rub the photograph with a wet finger then you know the photo has a

clay base. Examples of this kind of photograph are found in magazines such as *National Geographic*. After cutting out the photo, students cover it with a sheet of Contact and rub the print with steady pressure all over. The two ply sandwich is then soaked in warm water. The paper will peel away and the Contact sheet will contain the colored image. Wipe the sheet gently with water to remove the clay residue and dry. The result will be a duplicate of the magazine photo which can be projected onto a screen. Color-lift transparencies are useful when students wish to illustrate a subject too elaborate to be drawn. These transparencies may be used to illustrate a speech about a student's native country, or an elaborate picture may be used to initiate a class game such as "I See Something" or "Twenty Questions." Dittos are commonly used in schools by teachers but they can also be used to advantage by students. If your students are interested in popular music, you may suggest that they share the songs they enjoy by writing the lyrics onto a ditto which can be duplicated for the entire class. Student compositions can also be written onto dittos, duplicated, and distributed to the class as part of a book which will be added to with each new composition. I have found students check their writing more carefully when they know it will be read by their peers. Creative teachers will find many more ways to expand these suggestions in their own classrooms.

I would offer a word of caution at this point. The projects which have been suggested presuppose that before new skills are used in media production there has been a comprehensive presentation of the new material in the classroom and a period of controlled practice of the new structure. Teachers cannot ask students to use skills and structures that they have not previously taught.

Many teachers in the past have been reluctant to use audio-visual devices because they are unfamiliar with their use. The rewards which accrue from using these materials, however, should encourage more and more teachers to explore their use. Most teachers will necessarily be limited by the equipment they find available to them in their schools. However, all schools contain some of the materials discussed here and more of the new schools being built include budget allocations for cameras of various types for their media centers. The purchasing of expendable equipment such as film may not be a problem for some school systems. In those schools which do not provide funds for this material, however, students may volunteer to purchase their own. A roll of Polaroid film, purchased jointly by a team of three students, doesn't make a big dent in their budgets, but it does require them to plan more carefully so that none of the film is wasted.

Language teaching becomes subordinate to language learning when teachers recognize student differences, and allow for self-directed learning in a social context through the means of student media productions.

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TESL REPORTER

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INSTANT INVOLVEMENT- *THOSE VALUABLE FIRST MINUTES IN THE ESL CLASSROOM*

by Alice C. Pack

Frequently instructors have problems during the first five minutes in the ESL Classroom, particularly in large classes. Time is often wasted calling the roll, late students straggle in, friends sometimes exchange greetings (often in their native tongues), and, in general, student-teacher rapport develops slowly.

These problems can be almost completely eliminated by utilizing several methods of 'instant involvement.' Various materials, requiring simple preparation, which are described and illustrated in this article, are prepared in advance and distributed immediately when the class is supposed to start. If the material involves student listening, the teacher begins to read immediately; if the materials involve reading or writing, student materials are distributed immediately. Regardless of the number of students present and/or the disorder of the students in the classroom, begin immediately! The teacher should not repeat anything, either materials or instructions, and all student materials are distributed immediately and responses collected promptly at the end of the involvement exercise (usually two or three minutes after the class has started). After the responses are collected, another two or three minutes may be used for giving the answers and/or answering student questions about the selections.

As a student always puts his name at the top of all papers, the roll for the day is taken without using precious classroom minutes. Latecomers hand in a blank sheet of paper with just the student name on top, so teachers also have a record of late attendance. (I have found that there are no latecomers and very few absentees after a few days of using 'instant involvement' exercises in my classes.)

Specific materials used in class should depend on current classroom learning goals. If the class is primarily aural recognition or oral production, listening exercises are used; if it is primarily a reading class, reading exercies are used; if it is primarily a writing class, writing exercises are used.

An added advantage to that of keeping track of attendance and immediate involvement in an ESL class is the knowledge a teacher can accumulate on the listening, reading, or writing ability of a particular student on a day-to-day basis. If rolls are marked with a correct score over the number of answers (4/9, 7/10, 8/9, etc.) daily improvement can be noted for each student. Then, if teacher-student consultations are held, the teacher can show the progess or non-progress of a student in a particular area and give individual help, out-of-class assignments, or assign students to other classes.

The ten to twenty minutes necessary to prepare these exercises is a small price to pay for the increased classroom help of instant attention and increased activity they provide.

LISTENING EXCERCISES

Aural recognition or listening materials may be prepared by selecting short articles from news journals or the daily newspaper. (Students are particularly interested in items about their native countries.)

Make up several true-false or multiple choice questions about the material, using synonyms and/or rephrasing content material. Avoid direct quotes and statistical figures. figures.

At the start of the class small slips of paper with numbers and choice indications (one is reproduced below) are distributed and the teacher begins to read the article. As soon as the article is completed, the questions are read (again without any

repetition). Students mark their papers during this reading. The papers are collected immediately and the teacher reads the correct answers for student information. Students may also ask for word definitions or clarification of some part of the article at this time.

Articles should be read at normal speed--pauses between phrases and clauses may be necessary for beginning classes--but remember there are no repeats, either for the article or the questions.

Some newspaper or journal articles may be used only once as the news becomes 'stale,' but some are of general information and can be used for a year or two.

If the class has a very low level of English comprehension, or if the teacher is too busy to prepare materials, the short one-page 'rate-builder' materials in SRA kits may be used. These are available on levels from grade one through grade eight, and would be suitable for students in beginning and intermediate to advanced classes. (Often listening comprehension is much lower than reading comprehension of the material, as content cannot be reviewed.)

Student Answer Sheet

Name

1.	a	b	c	d	e
2.	a	b	c	d	e
3.	a	b	c	d	e
4.	a	b	c	d	e
5.	a	b	c	d	e
6.	a	b	c	d	e

Following is an article that is still interesting to students although it is nearly five years old.

(It has been used for several classes.)

Reprinted by permission from TIME, The Weekly Newsmagazine; Copyright Time, Inc., 1971.

The director of the Detroit zoo hired four ew security guards last week, not to contain he wildness within the cages, but to protect the animals from the inhumanity of man. In the past two years, the zoo population has been victimized by deliberate acts of brutality. A baby Australian wallaby left the protection of its mother's pouch and was stoned to death; a duck died with a steel-tipped arrow in its breast. A pregnant reindeer miscarried after firecracker-hurling youths bombed the frantic animal into convulsions. Visitors have been observed dropping lighted cigar butts on the backs of alligators, watching the ashes burn through the reptiles' skin, then breaking into laughter when the alligators reacted to the severe burn. Finally, the zoo's male hippopotamus choked to death last week after someone responded to the hippo's openmouthed begging for peanuts by rolling a tennis ball down its throat. The zookeepers were left to wonder whether it was their charges or their visitors that really should be caged.

1. The director of the Detroit zoo hired
   a) watchdogs.
   b) zookeepers.
   c) guards.
   d) some animals.

2. The security guards were hired to
   a) protect the animals from the visitors.
   b) protect the visitors from the animals.
   c) protect the baby animals.
   d) guard against accidents.

3. The injury to the animals by human beings during the last two years has been
   a) unforseen.
   b) accidental.
   c) unknown.
   d) deliberate.

4. The zoo mentioned was in
   a) Chicago.
   b) New York.
   c) Detroit.
   d) Los Angeles.

5. The hippopotamus died because

a) it was shot by a steel-tipped arrow.
b) some youths threw firecrackers at it.
c) lighted cigar butts were dumped on its back.
d) a tennis ball was thrown down its throat.

6. That people should probably be caged was suggested by
a) the animals.
b) the zoo keepers.
c) the visitors.
d) the newsmen.

A short listening exercise for a beginning class is for students to indicate whether words read by the teacher are the same or different. The words should be either minimal pairs or the same word.

Example:

lug	rug	D
pick	pick	S
pick	pig	D
sick	thick	D
thick	thick	S

Excellent examples of minimal pairs for all English speech sounds in initial, medial, and final position may be found in Gordon, *Speech Improvement* (Prentice-Hall, 1974), Nilsen and Nilsen, *Pronunciation Contrasts in English* (Simon and Schuster, 1971), and Plaister, *English Monosyllables* (East-West Center Press, Honolulu, 1965).

READING

Cloze tests are easily constructed from short articles or news items. Simply delete every *nth* word from the body of the text and replace it with a blank, leaving both the first and the last sentences of the article intact. In the article below every *6th* word was deleted.

(Remember that 50% exact word or 65% acceptable substitute is an excellent score for a Cloze test.)

The same paragraph used as a listening exercise is repeated here as a Cloze test.

The director of the Detroit zoo hired four new security guards last week, not to contain the wildness within the cages, but to protect the animals from the inhumanity of man. In the past two years --- zoo population has been victimized --- deliberate acts of brutality. A --- Australian wallaby left the protection --- its mother's pouch and was --- to death; a duck died --- a steel-tipped arrow in its ---. A pregnant reindeer miscarried after ---hurling youths bombed the frantic --- into convulsions. Visitors have been --- dropping lighted cigar butts on --- backs of alligators, watching the --- burn through the reptiles' skin, --- breaking into laughter when the --- reacted to the severe burn. ---, the zoo's male hippopotamus choked --- death last week after someone --- to the hippo's open-mouthed begging --- peanuts by rolling a tennis --- down its throat. The zookeepers were left to wonder whether it was their charges or their visitors that really should be caged.

The multiple-choice or true-false questions with articles described in the listening section may also be used with the paragraph and the questions duplicated for reading.

WRITING

A good involvement exercise for writing is the scrambled sentence. Students are given lists of words which they arrange into the proper English syntax.

Example:

1.	2.	3.
needs	comes	always
improve	class	to
his	she	they
he	everyday	try
to	English	English
English	to	use

1. He needs to improve his English.
2. She always comes to English class.
3. They always try to use English.

Dr. Pack will demonstrate these and other instant involment exercises at the TESOL Convention in New York City, March 1976.

Vol.3 CULTURE LEARNING Available

Volume 3 of Topics in Culture Learning is available at no charge from the Culture Learning Institute at the East-West Center. The volume contains 14 articles related to the Institute's four areas of research interest, 'Cultures in Contact,' 'Language in Culture,' 'Cultural Identity,' and 'Thought and Expression in Culture Learning.' The articles also examine one or more of these four themes which transcend the four research areas: learning one's own culture; learning about another culture; formal educational programs designed to teach one's own culture or about another culture; concepts and issues central to educational programs involving culture learning. Articles are aimed at the general reader rather than to a specialist in any one discipline.

The fourteen articles are:

INTRODUCTION TO ISSUES IN CULTURE AND LEARNING
Richard W. Brislin

THE HOUSE FORM AS A CORNERSTONE OF CULTURE
Stephen Bochner

MUSIC FOR MULTICULTURAL STUDENTS
William Feltz

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AN OVERVIEW OF ALASKA NATIVE BILINGUAL EDUCATION
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DILEMMAS OF LANGUAGE TRANSITON: CHALLENGES TO LANGUAGE PLANNING IN INDIA
Lachman M. Khubchandani

The volume can be obtained at no charge by writing the Director, Culture Learning Institute, East-West Center, Honolulu, Hawaii 96822.

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THE PANEL OF EXPERTS: A TEACHING DEVICE

by C. F. Springstead

In order to augment oral class participation, ESL instructors might consider using a device I have named "The Panel of Experts." Although its attractiveness to students stems from its similarity to many popular professional panel television programs, only *students* comprise the panel and participant groups. It has been found to stimulate—or even revive—oral participation and learning in courses involving extensive second-language reading, particularly in literature classes. The system first functioned well on the high-school level and later on the university level.

Basically, it consists of students' grading of their classmates' oral answers. In operation, one day the class elects a new panel of four student "Experts" for later in the same week. No student can serve as a panelist a second time until all the other students have served. The reserving of this special activity until late in the week influences the students to study well during the entire week. During the first part of the special class, the four panel members ask the other students questions covering the entire range of subject matter studied since the beginning of the semester. All students have to answer with books closed; only "The Panel of Experts" have their's open. In order to keep all students attentive during the questioning, the panelists first direct each question to the entire class, and then immediately name one student to answer. As each student answers his question, the four-student panel determines and records his grade.

In order to bring more students into in-

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tensive action, particularly in a large class of thirty or more, the instructor can double the number of student "officials" by having his class elect a second board, "The Board of Judges." Then, the panel of four "Experts" will determine the technical accuracy of a student answer, while the board of four "Judges" will determine the exact grade.

So that the panelists' questioning will proceed at a steady pace, the instructor may ask them to bring *written* questions, which he may wish to edit before the questioning session begins. He may also declare that only panelists' questions will appear in upcoming tests. Naturally, the entire group will generally heed such questions more than impromptu questons to be used only at a single session.

Essentially, then, this teaching device consists of "official" students grading other students on their oral answering. Its principal virtue is the students' drive to please their peers even more than their instructor. Moreover, inasmuch as the students always enthusiastically agree to use this entertaining system and elect each panel, they are generally perfectly willing to accept the panelists' grades. At the same time, the "Experts" of the panel must know the subject matter exceptionally well in order to produce fast, reasonable judgements about the accuracy of the participants' answers.* An additional major appeal for the ESL instructor, coincidentally, is that the students do most of the speaking, using the target language.

The most extensive gain, sustained study interest throughout the semester, results from the inclusion of all the previous subject matter for the semester in the second part of each session. A still more powerful psychological benefit lies, however, in each student's constantly honing himself to "Expert" sharpness for his accuracy as a fast-deciding panelist. (Nor should we overlook the traditional advantages of student "committee" experience, either.) The outstanding benefit of the system, then, is that it generates motivation.

Then, again, a major linguistic benefit accrues from the students' constant question-to-statement transform practice. In fact, the entire activity consists of questioning and stating. In a fifty-minute class period might not the students thus practice the question-to-statement transform some thirty or forty times, at least? Moreover, presumably each question-statement transform will include notably different terminology, as well as a changed sentence pattern. In other words, the question and answer forms will not consist only of endless drills involving just slight vocabulary changes using only one basic sentence pattern. Thus, the student participants will be making practical use of a variety of their previously-learned routinely-drilled sentence patterns.

In spite of the abundant advantages of the system, the instructor should always be ready to correct certain unsatisfactory situations which may arise in its operation. The most apparent one is extremely low revengeful grading. Even though one hundred per cent student speaking is the TESL ideal, the instructor should intervene if the panel assigns a grade of only six points for an almost perfect answer, for example.

Another situation requiring special care might develop in a very large class—particularly one with several unusually slow foreign students of ESL. When only a few students are not of the predominant native-language background, most of those of the predominant language background sometimes do not readily understand questions addressed to them in the different English pronunciation of those of the minority language background. In such situations, at university level, there has been considerable delay in communication between those of the several language backgrounds. In such situations, the instructor should limit the minority language background students to answering questions or determining grades, but should prevent their asking questions. In other words, those few should be participants or judges, but not panelists. Accordingly, many pariticpants will be spared the embarrassment of having to say, "I didn't understand the question" or "Please repeat the question."

Furthermore, as always, the instructor should try to anticipate and prevent major pronunciational and syntactical errors by certain deficient students. In these cases, by his hearing the beginning of a question or

(continued on page 14)

*In order to make known their intensive efforts and good grades, students in one class voted to have their names and grades posted on a hall bulletin board.

ESOL Teacher Trainer Participants of the East-West Center Culture Learning Institute, September 1, 1975 - March 31, 1976: Mr. Chuthai Chalamat, Thailand; Mr. Wen-Hung Hsu, Republic of China; Mr. Dal-Kyu Kim, Korea; Miss Yoshiko Otusbo, Japan; Mr. Chang-Jin Pyun, Korea; Miss Wannee Ratarasarn, Thailand; Mrs. Lydia de la Rosa, Philippines; Miss Nirmala Sari, Indonesia; Mr. Judah Sigrah, Micronesia; Mrs. Penrat Warirak, Thailand; Miss Charassri Wattanasak, Thailand.

ENGLISH for INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION

by Larry Smith

The following is an excerpt from the graduation address at the ESOL Teacher Trainers Graduation of the Culture Learning Institute of the East West Center February 27, 1976.

Concerning international communication, permit me to say this. We have had what sometimes seemed like endless discussions on the use of English as an international means of communication. We've talked about methods of training teachers, material selection and classroom techniques but I want to stress once more that English belongs to the world. It is yours as much as it is mine. We may use it for different purposes and for different lengths of time on different occasions but English is one of the languages of Japan, Korea, Micronesia, and the Philippines. It is one of the languages of the Republic of China, Thailand and the United States. Please inform your students who are prospective English teachers, in redundant ways, that English is one of your languages. No one needs to become more like Americans, the English, Australians, Canadians or any other native English speaker in order to lay claim on the language. It isn't even necessary to appreciate the culture of any country whose principal language is English in order to use it effectively. English belongs to all of us. Each has his own accent and dialect. Let us remind ourselves that in English teaching our goal is to help people have greater access to the world and greater ability in explaining their hopes, fears, concerns, and disatisfactions to international neighbors. English is to be a part of them for their purposes. They should change it as necessary to suit their needs. They are not to change to somehow become a part of it.

Say that frequently because it may become increasingly important in the future to disassociate yourself from governments or political systems that use English natively while at the same time emphasizing the importance of English as a language of internationl communication.

GUIDELINES FOR AND BY IMMIGRANT STUDENTS

By Ruth Crymes, Ke Soon Lee and Wilma Oksendahl

What might immigrant children who have already spent some time in Hawaii's public schools have to say to new immigrant students that could help smooth the entry of the new arrivals into a school culture unfamiliar to them? We discussed this question with eight Korean students, two boys and two girls from a high school and three boys and one girl from a junior high school, whose residence in Hawaii at the time of the discussion ranged from one and a half months to five years. The discussion was in Korean, moderated by a Korean educator* recently arrived from Korea and with earlier experience of a year's residence and study in the United States. She later provided an English translation of what the students had said.

The discussion was videotaped. Because of mechanical problems we got only twenty-two minutes of videotaping from the ninety minute session. Another time we would record on audio cassettes only and reserve videotaping for scripted and rehearsed presentation based on the content of spontaneous cassette taping. We envision that such a videotape might be helpful in orienting new immigrant students to school live here. In the present case, we have copied the audio part of the videotape onto a cassette, which we plan to play for some of the new Korean students to see if they find it helpful. Our immediate objective, however is to incorporate material gleaned from the discussion into a set of guidlines printed in Korean for distribution to incoming Korean students.

In this discussion it was clear that the students were not talking "off the cuff." Still, they pin-pointed the sources of some of their difficulties. Teachers and others who have worked with Korean immigrant students at intermediate and secondary levels may have already discovered these sources through their own observations. For them, the students' comments may simply serve as confirming data. For others, the comments may be informative. The importance of the discussion from our point of view, however, lies primarily not in the confirmation or information that it might offer to Hawaii's teachers, but in the direction it might afford to new arrivals in the form of guidlines in their own language provided by immigrant students who have preceded them. It is not enough that teachers know the problems of new arrivals; the new arrivals themselves need to be informed about what they may espect in their new situation.

Most of what our informants said fell into four problem areas, which we identify below with some explanatory comments.

*Mrs. Ke Soon Lee, one of the co-authors of this article.

Ruth Crymes is Professor of ESL, University of Hawaii; Ke Soon Lee is Associate Professor, College of Education, Seoul National University, Korea, and Wilma Oksendahl is TESOL Coordinator, Central District, Hawaii State Department of Education.

This project was undertaken Fall 1975 while Ms. Crymes was a Senior Fellow at the Culture Learning Institute, East-West Center, and Ms. Lee was an East-West Center grantee participating in the Culture Learning Institute's Foreign/Second Language Materials Development Project.

(1) *Finding one's way around the school.* Many school campuses in Hawaii are large and sprawling, and the geography of the classrooms can be baffling to newly-arrived immigrant students. Since the English that Korean students acquire in their home country does not typically include "survival" English, they don't have the language to find their way around easily. As a result, in the early days of their arrival they are sometimes late to class because they get lost trying to find their classrooms. Teachers do not always know the reason for the tardiness, with the unfortunate outcome that teacher and student may get off on the wrong foot with each other. A solution would seem to be not only to provide students with a handbook, including a map of the school, as schools usually do, but to provide them with

maps in their own languages either individual maps or large maps posted in key areas.

(2) *Learning English.* According to our informants, the best way to improve one's English is to make friends with local students and participate in school club activities. But because of their limited proficiency in English, it is difficult for the newcomers to make local friends. And sometimes local students will laugh at the English of the newcomers. Some of the local students who start out being friendly with the newcomers give up because communication is so difficult. So it is up to the immigrant students, our Korean informants said, to exert strong, personal effort to make friends with local students. One recounted her brother's successful experience, where, with the help of an English-speaking friend, he used a tape recorder to improve his English. Those who had been in Hawaii a year or longer agreed that it had taken them about a year before they could talk easily with their friends and even longer than that to communicate completely with their teachers, who use "more difficult vocabulary."

(3) *Recognizing differences in customs.* The students told us that sometimes there are differences in customs that can cause misunderstandings with other students and thus inhibit friendships. The example that they gave was the case where in Korea, unlike in Hawaii, it is all right for boys to hold hands and put their arms around each other's shoulders.

(4) *Learning about academic standards.* Considerable tension builds up from concern on the part of Korean students for getting good grades. Especially at high school level, Korean students often feel parental pressure about going on to college. Our student informants told us that they had learned that their initial worries about grades were for the most part excessive. They discovered after a while that examinatiens here in the particular classes in which they have been placed are not so difficult as those in Korea. One reason appears to be that tests in their Korean classes usually covered more than coursework, requiring them to display additional knowledge gained from their independent study, whereas in Hawaii tests in their situation seems to be a consequence of the fact that, because of the language barrier, immigrant students are generally not placed in the more advanced classes. If newcomers understood this situation, our student informants felt, they would be less tense and would know that if they kept up with their coursework and did all the reading and other assignments day by day, they would probably be able to get good grades. It will take them longer than the local students to do their homework, because of the language problem of understanding ideas and concepts. They pointed out that new arrivals need to doublecheck with their teachers about what the assignmnets are so that they can avoid the failure to do an assignment simply because they do not recognize, through their ears, when an assignment is being made.

A striking feature of the students' discussion was the emphasis that they placed again and again on the responsibility that new arrivals have to make real personal effort to cope. The only strong request that they made for assistance was that a teacher or aide who is bilingual in English and Korean be available in the school to help the newcomers understand what is going on and to counsel them. It was evident to us that the eight students themselves felt responsible for helping new arrivals. They were gladly participating in the discussion in the hope that what they said would be useful to pass along to newcomers.

It must of course be kept in mind that these eight students are eight individuals, giving their views on schooling in Hawaii from their personal points of view. We need to have similiar discussions with other groups of Korean students and students from other ethnic groups to find out which themes are common across groups and which are not. It will also take time and experience to learn how best to elicit information that will be most helpful to new arrivals. In the meanwhile there are immigrants who need orientation, and we feel that the eight students said enough in twenty-two minutes for us to distill from their discussion a set of preliminary guidelines, printed in parallel Korean and English texts, to give to incoming Korean students. Those interested in receiving a copy of these guidlines can send a self-addressed stamped envelope after February 1, 1976, to Wilma Oksendahl, TESOL Coordinator, Central Oahu District, 1136 California Ave., Wahiawa, Hawaii 96786.

THIS IS THE SECOND OF THREE ARTICLES BY DR. YAO SHEN. THE FIRST, WHICH APPEARED IN THE WINTER 1976 ISSUE OF THE TESL REPORTER, SHOULD HAVE BEEN TITLED, **"A SIMPLE PREDICATE IN ENGLISH."** *IN ERROR, THE EDITOR MIS-LABLED THE FIRST ARTICLE WITH THE HEADING FOR THE SECOND. THE THIRD,* **"PROVERBS AND PROPREDICATES IN ENGLISH,"** *WILL APPEAR IN THE SUMMER 1976 ISSUE.*

DISTINGUISHING TWO TYPES OF SENTENCES BY RETRIEVAL

by Yao Shen

Let us look at six short dialogues.

Question:	Answer:
1. Is the boy a student?	1. (Yes,) he is.
2. Is the boy interesting?	2. (Yes,) he is.
3. Is the boy at school?	3. (Yes,) he is.
4. Is the boy working?	4. (Yes,) he is.
5. Is the boy forgiven?	5. (Yes,) he is.
6. Is the boy being considered?	6. (Yes,) he is.

Each of the six answers consists of two words and the same two, *he* and *is*. Morphologically, *he* may be analyzed into the third person singular pronoun in the nominative case, and *is* into the third person singular present tense form of *be*. Syntacticly, the arrangement of *he is* is that *he* precedes *is*, which is the same as saying that *is* follows *he*. In the sequences, *he is*, there are a subject, *he*, and a predicate, *is*. Our present interest is in the predicate.

A simple predicate has two obligatory grammatical features: tense and the verb. It begins with the words which carries tense, or the tense carrier, and ends with the verb. In the six answers, the predicate has only one word, *is*. This word, *is*, (a present tense form of *be*) is both the tense carrier and the verb. In the respect that *is* is both the tense carrier and the verb, all six answers are the same.

There are alternative sets of answers to the same six questions. One of them which is frequently called the long form of answers 1-6 is as follows:

1a. (Yes,) he is a student.
2a. (Yes,) he is interesting.
3a. (Yes,) he is at school.
4a. (Yes,) he is working.
5a. (Yes,) he is forgiven.
6a. (Yes,) he is being considered.

These answers, 1a-6a, differ from answers 1-6 in the fact that after *is* they continue and repeat what is in their respective questions; 1-6 do not. Answers 1-6 have undergone the process of deletion. Answers 1a-6a have recovered or retrieved what has been omitted or deleted in 1-6. They show that they are two different types of sentences. The first three (1a, 2a, 3a) designated as Type X, belong to one; the last three (4a, 5a, 6a) designated as Type Y belong to another.

The two types of sentences differ from each other in three ways. First, Type X sentences have *be* as the verb.

			Verb	
Type X	1a.	he	is	a student.
	2a.	he	is	interesting.
	3a.	he	is	at school.

The verb in Type Y sentences, however, is not *be*. In sentences 4a, 5a, and 6a, the verbs are *work*, *forgive*, and *consider*.

					Verb
Type Y	4a.	he	is		working.
	5a.	he	is		forgiven.
	6a.	he	is	being	considered.

Second, in Type X sentences, *be* is both the tense carrier and the verb. Here the tense carrier (T-c) and the verb converge; there is no verb string.

			T-c / Verb	
Type X	1a.	he	is	a student.
	2a.	he	is	interesting.
	3a.	he	is	at school.

In Type Y sentences, *be* is the tense carrier but not the verb. *Work*, *forgive*, and *consider* are the verbs of 4a, 5a, and 6a. Here the tense carrier and the verb diverge; there is a verb string in which tense is carried by the first word; the verb is the last word.

		T-c		Verb
Type Y	4a.	he	is	working.
	5a.	he	is	forgiven.
	6a.	he	is being	considered.

Verb string

Third, the verb in Type X sentences is followed by a complement; the complement and the predicate are co-terminous.

		Verb	Complement
Type X	1a.	he is	a student.
	2a.	he is	interesting.
	3a.	he is	at school.

In Type Y sentences, the verb is not followed by a complement; the verb and the predicate are co-terminous.

		Verb
Type Y	4a.	he is working.
	5a.	he is forgiven.
	6a.	he is being considered.

Verbs *work*, *forgive*, and *consider* are in their participle forms. Participles, present (work*ing*) and past (forgiv*en*, consider*ed*) are not tense carriers. They are the following member in a two-member string and form discontinuous strings with *be* (or *have* which is not taken up here) immediately preceding them. (See "Supplementation of Opposites in Simple Predicate Expansion," *TESL Reporter*, Vol. 4, Nos. 1-4, 1970-71.) The two discontinuous strings here are *be + -ing* and *be + -n*.

		Verb
4a.	is (be)	working.
5a.	is (be)	forgiven.
6a.	is (be) being	considered.

Participles which form discontinuous strings with *be* may be the verb as *working* (in *be + -ing)* in 4a, or as *forgiven* and *considered* (in *be + -n*) in 5a, and the second string in 6a. A participle may not be the verb as *being* (in *be + -ing*) in the first string in 6a.

If answers 1-6 were considered as the same, it would be because they have be as both the tense carrier and the verb. (See "Co-occurrence and Non-co-occurrence of Tense Carrier and Verb in Simple Predicates," *TESL Reporter*, Vol. 5, No. 3, 1972, an abstract of which appears in *Language and Language Behavior Abstracts*, Volume VI, No. 4, 1972.) On the other hand, their alternatives, 1a-6a, give evidence that they belong to two different types of sentences: X and Y.

1. he is	Type X	1a. he is a student.
2. he is		2a. he is interesting.
3. he is		3a. he is at school.
4. he is	Type Y	4a. he is working.
5. he is		5a. he is forgiven.
6. he is		6a. he is being considered.

The difference between the two types of sentences in 1-6 has been obscured by the process of deletion. Sentences 1a, 2a, and 3a show that in 1, 2, and 3, neither the tense carrier nor the verb has been deleted, but the complement has. Sentences 4a, 5a, and 6a show that in sentences 4, 5, and 6, only the tense carrier remains; the rest of the verb string has been deleted. This deletion is responsible for obscuring the difference between 1-3 and 4-6 sentences. Nevertheless, this obscurity has been encountered by the application of retrieval. Retrieval removes the obscurity and brings to the fore that sentences 1-3 are Type X sentences with a verb (not a verb string) followed by a complement, and that sentences 4-6 are Type Y sentences with a verb string not followed by a complement. Sentences such as 1-6 may have a seeming similarity. However, it is the undeleted sentence in each case or one which has retrieved the deletion that gives the full information as to the type a sentence actually is. Hence, in order to assure proper classification of sentences, it would be advisable to retrieve all that has been deleted.

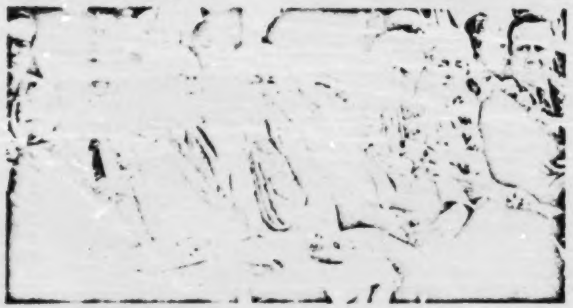
GROUNDBREAKING CEREMONIES FOR NEW BYU-HC LEARNING CENTER

by Curtis Fawson

The new Learning Resource Center (LRC) will be a welcome addition to the BYU-Hawaii campus and will provide over 42,000 square feet to the existing building.

There has been a growing need on campus for better facilities to accomodate the foreign student English Language Institute program, and, as the planning proceeded for the new LRC, consideration was given to the type of functions and structure needed for the ELI program, and how that could interface with the functions of the LRC.

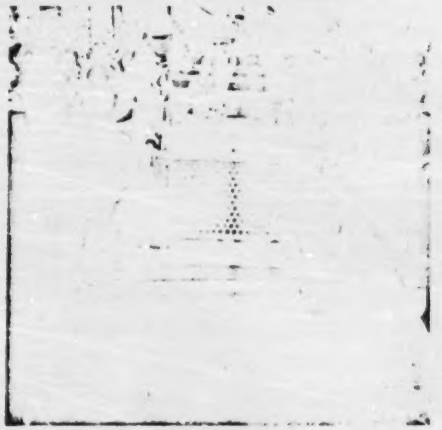
The ELI program is geared to teach proficiency in four skilled areas: Writing, Reading and Vocabulary, Aural Comprehension, and Speaking. Not only is direct instruction used in the program, but a combination of teaching-learning methods as well, as individuals test out of one lab skill situation to another when proficiencies are achieved. The program is also designed to encourage students to move from one skill level to another as rapidly as possible on an individual rather than on a group basis.



The ELI facilities in the soon to be rennovated portion of the existing LRC building will consist of four classrooms seating about twenty people each. These rooms will have flexible seating and multi-media capability. Also a multi-purpose lab with carrells and small tables will be near the class rooms for additional flexibility in the ELI program. For years the types of learning experiences in the classroom or lab have been thought of as separate and apart from those gained in a library setting; however, we are attempting to bring those functions closer together at BYU-HC as the ELI program joins forces with the LRC in providing greater opportunities for students to expand their language skills.

Since 1973, the LRC has experienced increased utilization of facilities and materials. For example, in the 1973-74 academic year the average patron utilization averaged 7,400 per month. However, in the first six months of the 1975-76 academic year, the average patron utilization has been around 28,750 per month. Utilization of both media software and hardware, as well as books, has grown in parallel with the increase in patron services. This type of growth has been the major factor in seeking approval for the new building construction.

Capability for print holdings will increase to a maximum capacity of over 250,000 volumes. Student study stations have slowly decreased in the current structure, however, this will no longer be a problem with the new expansion that will be designed to seat at least one-fourth of the student body.



AIEA Adult Leaders Visit BYU–HC English Language Institute

In mid February, forty-two teachers and administrators from the adult education section of the Hawaii State Department of Education, Aiea district, visited the English Language Institute (ELI) of the Brigham Young University–Hawaii Campus as the first day's participation of a two-day seminar focusing on methods of Teaching English as a Second Language.

Dr. Eric B. Shumway, chairman of the Communication and Language Arts Division, greeted the teachers at a 7:00 A.M. session. William Gallagher, coordinator of the English Language Institute, reviewed the operation of the university's ELI program of student participation in the four language skill classes at four levels of proficiency. This included an explanation of the battery of tests used to measure student proficiency and diagnosis of student strengths and weaknesses.

Following these presentations, teachers visited ELI classes in progress. They observed (and occasionaly participated with students and teachers) classes in reading comprehension (conducted by Kenyon Moss), writing development activities (conducted by Gale Ward), short varied dialogs (conducted by William Gallagher), and learning prepositions, pronouns, and verbs using participation dyads (conducted by Alice Pack).

After the final period, where BYU-HC instructors and the visiting teachers met for a question and answer wrapup, the forty-two teachers returned to Aiea and a second day of discussion activities.

TESL REPORTER

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Editor . . . . . Alice C. Pack
Staff . . . . . Kenyon Moss
Lorraine Swapp

Articles relevant to teaching English as a Second Language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 157, Brigham Young University Hawaii Campus, Laie, Oahu, Hawaii 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding six pages.

THE USE OF THE PREPOSITION *KI* IN TONGAN

by Tavita Lui

The purpose of this paper is to discuss some of the observations that I have made concerning the uses of the Tongan preposition *ki*.

Authur Zeiger defines prepostition as "a part of Speech that expresses the various relations of ***substantives*** to other words of group of words in the sentence. The relations may be of place, cause, instrumentality, manner or purpose."[1]

George Takahaski states that one of the most difficult problems a student of Engish as a second language faces is the understanding of the functions and the usages of English prepositions. This is due partly to the fact that English speakers, including teachers, are unable to offer any logical explanation for their usages.[2]

Tongan prepositions can be a problem to a student who studies Tongan as well as to a Tongan student who studies English. Like English, the Tongan prepositions lack logical explanations for their usages. The only explanations that teachers can offer are: It does not sound right," or "Language is not always logical."[3] To overcome this problem, I find that one will just have to memorize the usage of the prepositions both of Tongan and of English.

Edna Lue Furness said, "The misuse of prepositions though is not too surprising. After all, in every language prepositional usage is peculiar and arbitrary. The principal reason is that, except for time and space relationships, the relations expressed by prepositions are so vague and indefinite that one preposition seems equally as correct as another. Yet usage dictates the preposition to be used in a particular relationship."[4]

Although the prepositions of Tongan and English are similar, there are some ways in which the two languages differ. One of these differences is the use of adverbs as prepositions. In English, adverbs such as inside, down, up and between, are frequently used as prepositions. In Tongan, adverbs may never be used as prepositions (I have never come across any). However, they may be used as substantives (objects of prepositions) but not as prepositions. The word substantive, as defined by the dictionary, means "a noun, pronoun, or other word or phrase having nominal function in sentences or inflected like a noun."[5]

With this meaning, I will proceed to explain that the Tongan preposition *ki* sometimes takes on an adverb for an object. This concept of using an adverb for an object of a preposition is supported by Edna Lue Furness, who is a professor of Language and Literature at Kearney State College, Nebraska.

Tavita Lui, a graduate student from Tonga, is completing a Fifth Year Certificate in Education with a TESL focus at the Brigham Young University–Hawaii Campus.

1 Zeiger, Arthur. *Encyclopedia of English.* (Arco Publishing Co., Inc., 1959) p. 87.

2 Takahaski, George. "Perception of Space and the Function of Certain English Prepositions." *Language Learning. Vol. XIX* (December 1969) p. 217.

3 Ibid.

4 Furness, Edna Lue. "Pupils Pedagogues, and Preposition Problems." *Elementary English.* (March, 1967) p. 217.

5 Stein, Jess. *The Random House Dictionary of the English Language.* (New York: Random House, Inc., 1966) p. 1418.

She wrote:

> Today one notes as objects of prepositions many kinds of words, phrases, and clauses, belonging to almost any part of speech. The most common object is the noun, as 'on the stove' or 'over the rainbow.' Verbs and adverbs may also be objects, as in 'she does everything but help her friends.' The adjective as object of a preposition is found in the words of the marriage vow: 'for worse, for richer, for poorer.' "[6]

One of the most commonly used prepositions in Tongan is the word *ki*, which can be used to mean any one of these: to, by, on, with, at, for, in, into, inside, among, or of. It is due to the variations of the usages of prepositions such as *ki* that language learning becomes a bit difficult to a Tongan student of English. A Tongan student, not understanding the proper usage of the English prepositions, tends to translate word for word from Tongan into English. This translation method cannot work every time, because a word in one language may have several meanings in another language, depending on how it is used in the sentence.

The most common use of *ki* is when it is in the adverbial prepositional phrase where its meaning seems the same as that of the English 'to'. When *ki* is used like this, its object can either be (1) an adverb of place or direction, (2) a proper noun—names of places only, or (3) the third person singular pronoun *ai*. Examples:

'Ki' with an adverb as object.

a. *Teu puna ki olunga.*
   "I shall jump up."
b. *'Alu ki ko.*
   "Go away."
c. *Ha'u ki heni.*
   "Come here."
d. *Ala ki lalo.*
   "Put your hands down."
e. *Sio ki tu'a.*
   "Look outside."

According to Auther Zeiger, when these adverbs are used as objects, they are no longer adverbs. They are substantives, because they take the place of nouns. This is the case when in Tongan, adverbs are used as objects of preposition. *Oku ou alu ki 'olunga* is a sentence that loses its meaning when it is translated into English as "I am going up." *Olunga*, in this sentence, denotes a place where I am going to. This place is above me at the time of speaking. It can mean 'the top floor,' 'heaven,' or 'a branch of a tree above.' So, *olunga* may be an adverb, but when it is used with ki it becomes an object. It does not describe how I go; it tells where I am going to.

'Ki' with a proper noun for an object. (name of place only)

a. *Teu 'alu ki Hawaii.*
   "I shall go to Hawaii."
b. *Te nau puna ki Laie.*
   "They will fly to Laie."
c. *Teu alu ki kolo.*
   "I shall go to town."
d. *Teke 'alu ki heli.*
   "You will go to hell." or "Will you go to hell?"
e. *Na'a ne 'alu ki Langi.*
   "He went to Heaven."

'K' with the pronoun 'ai' (him/her/it) for an object.

a. *Ala ki ai.*
   "Touch it/him/her."
b. *Na'a ku 'alu ki ai.*
   "I went to him/her/it."

In cases where common nouns are used as objects, they take the definitive accent, and are preceded by the preposition *ki* and the definite article *he*. The definitive accent always falls on the last syllable of the noun object. Examples: *ki he fale* "to the house," *ki he tamasi'i* "to the boy," *ki he fu'u 'akau* "to the tree," *ki he moto loli* "to the truck."

Where the object of the preposition is either a pronoun (all pronouns except *ai* and *ia*) or a proper noun (name of person only), *ki* is combined with *a* to form the preposition *kia*.

Kia is also an equivalent of the English 'to.' *Lele kia Poku* "Run to Poku," *'Ave e kia Sione* "Take this to Sione," *'Omai ia kia au* "Give that to me," *Ko'ene ha'u kia koe* "He comes to you," *Ko'eve ha'u kia kinautolu* "He comes to them," *Mou oki kia kimautolu* "You come to us."

Kia may also be used as an equivalent of

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[6] Furness, p. 216.

CULTURE AND CONTENT: DECODING TRAFFIC SIGNS

by Karen E. Czarnecki

Cultural orientation for the foreign student should always be of primary importance in the ESL classroom. Yet it is an area often neglected or shunted to the when-and-if-we-have-time portion of the instructor's teaching schedule. Frequently it is taught as an entity in itself, which is better than nothing, but with a little pre-planning, structural and/or lexical items and culture can be melded into a dynamic blend. A happy corollary of this is the fact that since the cultural items are of more immediacy to the student and interest in them is high, the perhaps less interesting accompanying grammatical structures have a better chance of being internalized: this may be due to their initial connection with the more engrossing cultural item.

The type and amount of traffic signs bear some scrutiny if we are to use them successfully in day-to-day class activities. There are two major classifications: the traditional signs which have printed instructions in English, and the newer international signs which use pictures only. Of the former there are four sub-groups: road directionals ("One Way"), road instructionals ("For Two Lanes"), parking instructionals ("2 Hour Metered Parking"), and traffic instructionals ("Cross on Walk Signal Only"). A typical person living in an urban area of the U.S. confronts on an average at least 30 signs daily, most of which are still non-pictorial. Some of these are confusing even to native Americans: for example, ("1 Hour Metered Parking / 8 AM - 4 PM / Tues., Wed., Fri., Sat. / 8 AM - 4PM & 6 PM - 9 PM Mon. & Thurs."), and some marginally grammatical ("No Stopping or Standing"). Yet traffic signs are an idigenous part of the American scene and are expected to be adhered to no matter what. And we might reflect that it is preferable for the foreign student to learn at least some of the "no matter what's" in the security of his classroom rather than by the hard way.

With the above in mind, let us look more closely at the utilization of traffic signs. Even a cursory glance at those most frequently encountered will reveal that many of them are in the present participle. Possibilities either for initial presentation or renforcement of grammatical understanding, is addition to survival skills, begin to emerge.

Mrs. Czarnecki is an ESL instructor at Mercer County Community College and Ewing Adult School, both in Trenton, New Jersey.

Hard-to-learn prepositions of place may take on a new interest in view of everyone's need to cope with "No Parking From Here to Corner," or similarly, "No Parking Between Signs." Building on this same item can lead to valuable speaking, listening, and coping skills as well. For example, the instructor can create and encourage the students to develop a conversation situation in which one student acts out the part of a policeman who has just found another student parked in a "No Parking" zone.

The enterprising instructor can utilize traffic sign diction for linguistic drill as well. For example, the final "ng" in "standing" and "stopping" is frequently mispronounced "k" by certain foreign language speakers and can be practiced for reduction of this error. Further, students can sharpen composition skills by helping each other write out the conversations they created around a specific traffic situation as suggested above.

Commonly used abbreviations such as "JCT" or "ALT" need exploraton and expansion, as do elliptical forms found in such instructions as "Delayed Green Wait." The latter example might be suitable for a more advanced class which is also working with the same construction found in newspaper headlines. This level class will also find reinforcement for participle study in signs such as "Merging Traffic." A beginning class, working

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Panel of Experts

(continued from page 2)

answer, the instructor, realizing the subject area being worked on, can often anticipate the next words to be said. If he knows his students as well as many thorough instructors do, he will sense the trap his student is headed for. He will not wait for the student to commit the blatant error, but will help him by pre-pronouncing the difficult segments for the student. Plainly, such help is always in order in second-language classes. Thus, students arrive at perfection and self-confidence in the new language—and in their sense of specialized subject matter control as well.

Notwithstanding its few limitations, "The Panel of Experts" system has kept several literature classes at a high level of interest and participation throughout their courses. Without doubt, the principal motivation has been social approval and prestige. Knowing that they would soon be elected to "The Panel of Experts" (or to "The Board of Judges" in certain large classes), and that otherwise they would be answering questions every week, most students have explored all subject matter quite attentively. Certainly, they have desired to prosper in the eyes of their peers—more importantly than in the eyes of their instructors!

Actually, the system has been so attractive to some pleasure-loving students that they have clamored to spend a disproportionately large part of class time with it. Agreed—it would be unreasonable to devote one-third or more of all class time to such entertaining competition: or would it?

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Please direct inquiries to: Charles F. Itzin, Academic Director, Centro Colombo - Americano, Apartado Aereo 4525, Cali, Colombia.

Preposition Ki in Tongan

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'with' and 'at.' *Oku ou 'ita kia Mele* "I am angry with Mele," *Sio kia Poku mo Kaliko* "Look at Poku and Kaliko," *Sio kia Manu mo hono so* "Look at Manu and his friend."

Where the object of the preposition is a pronoun (except for the pronoun *ai*), *kia*, when used in formal speech, may be combined with *te* to form the preposition *kiate*. *Kiate* is often used where 'to' is used in English. *Ha'u kiate au* "Come to me," *'oku mau 'ofa atu kiate kimoutolu* "We love you," *'Oatu kiate ia* "Give it to him."

Kiate, in the following two sentences, seems to be used where Engligh uses 'on.' *'alo'ofa mai kiate kimautolu* "Have mercy on us," *Hulu kai ho'o maama kiate au* "Shine your light on me."

As shown in the following sentences, *ki* may be used where 'into' is used in English. *Hua'i ki he hina* "Pour it/them into the bottle," *Tuku ki he kopate* "put it/them into the cupboard," *Lingi ki ha kane* "Pour it/them into a bucket."

In some adverbial phrases, *ki* is the equivalent of the English 'inside' or 'in' or 'into.' *'Alu ki fale* "Go inside the house" or "Go in the house" or "Go into the house."

In other adverbial phrases, *ki* is equal in meaning to the English 'on.' *'Ai ho'o me'akai ki he peleti* "put your food on the plate," *Tuku ho'o peleti ki he tepile* "Put your plate on the table."

In the following sentences *ki* takes the meaning of 'for:' *'Oku ne aki ki hono B.A.* "He is studying for his B.A. Degree," *'Oku ne ako ki he sivi* "He is studying for the exam."

Ki, in this sentence, is equal to 'among.' *'Alu 'o vahe e me'akai ki he kakai* "Go and divide the food among the people."

Yet, in this following sentence, *ki* is equal to 'of.' *Ko hai 'oku 'i ai ha'a he 'ilo ki he 'ilo kava* "Who has any knowledge of the kava ceremony."

It can also be used to mean the same as 'about.' *'Oku ako 'a Mele ki he neesi* "Mele is studying about nursing."

These are the uses of the Tongan preposition *ki* that I have found. They point out the fact that Tongan, like any other language, is arbitrary. A word, depending on how it is used in a sentence, may have many meanings. *Ki*, when it stands alone, does not mean anything. It becomes meaningful when it is used in a sentence correctly.

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CULTURE AND CONTENT DECODING TRAFFIC SIGNS

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with time concepts, will find added stimulus in typical urban instructions for "2 Hour Parking / 8 AM to 6 PM."

The activities outlined above by no means exhaust the possibilities inherent in this approach. Further, each locale offers traffic signs relevant to its own area (e.g. "Cattle Crossing") in addition to the standard ones. Such signs become even more valuable to the ESL class because of their specific relevance to the immediate environment and culture.

Probably the single most effective way of presenting such information to students is through the use of color slides snapped by the instructor. Close-ups are usually more effective, but an occasional shot of a busy intersection with a half dozen signs all vying for attention, brings the real-life situation into the classroom with dramatic immediacy. In short, possibilities for combining culture and content, even through traffic signs, are limitless.

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IS THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY DEAD

by Lynn E. Henrichsen

Once upon a time the language laboratory was a mighty oak in the verdant field of audiolingualism. The prognosticators predicted a rosy future for this marvelous teaching machine. Manufacturers of lab equipment flourished as language teachers scrambled to get labs installed in their schools.

That was a generation ago. Today, cognitive learning psychology is in, and behaviorism is out. Communicative competence is the byword, and pattern practice is often regarded with a sneer. An inspection of many rooms which once contained glittering machines and neat rows of student carrels would now reveal dust and dilapidation. Although some labs are making valiant efforts to survive, many modern-day prognosticators write off the language lab as a doomed relic of the audio-lingual past. Hence the question: is the language laboratory dead?

An examination of the lab and its history will help in answering that question. Great things were expected of the language laboratory when it first appeared on the scene with its gleaming steel, sparkling glass, molded plastic, and wonderful wires. Many teachers hoped it would be a cure-all for their language teaching problems.

These great expectations were later followed by an even greater feeling of disillusionment when it was discovered that the lab would not do everything. Besides not being a cure-all, the lab itself created some new problems of its own. The machines seemed to be always breaking down, and who knew how to fix them? Electronic repairmen cost money, and that wasn't in the budget. Machines which break and are not fixed do not aid in the teaching/learning process. They only frustrate. Frustration leads to disenchantment and eventual abandonment.

The original lab tapes were designed to relieve the teacher of conducting pattern-practice drills and to provide an untiring, unfluctuating, native-speaker model for the learner to imitate. The student could go to the lab and repeat patterns until they came

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out of his ears. This was good behaviorism. But when the learning theory changed, the tapes, in general, did not. The result was that, even today, whenever anyone thinks of the lab, the repetition of pattern drills come to mind.

Besides becoming outdated, the %@*&$% tapes also broke, got all tangled up, and occasionally even slipped away and unrolled down the aisle. And of course there was always the bother of threading them onto the machine correctly. As the tapes and records gradually wore out, sound quality deteriorated, and there were no more grants to buy new materials.

In retrospect, it is no wonder that the language lab was abandoned by so many. Machines were often not maintained, and they became obsolete as technology advanced. Materials also failed to keep pace with trends in teaching. And, to top it all off, when teachers tired of their new gadgets, they relegated them to lab assistants who were usually minimally-trained, part-time, student workers. Who could expect anything except dissatisfaction? What would happen to any part of a language teaching program if it continued to use generation-old books with torn and missing pages in classes taught only by student assistants?

What is being argued here is that the language laboratory is a tool, and the success or failure of any tool depends upon the way it is used. Used well, the tool should be valuable to more than one teaching method. In other words, the fact that the language laboratory was developed in the heyday of audio-lingualism does not necessarily mean that it is inextricably bound to that method of language teaching and that method only. With a few modifications in the equipment and some imagination and effort on the part of teachers and materials producers, the lab may be just as useful today as it ever was. It is encouraging to note that many current textbook producers are recognizing this fact and providing new types of tapes and tapebooks along with their modern classroom texts.

Concurrently, several advances have been made in recent years in the area of hardware which make laboratories more reliable and manageable. Most notable among these are cassette-style tapes and players and solid-state electronics.* Even "wireless" headphones are available. What the future holds is anyone's guess. Predictable advances include an expanded role of television with video tape cassettes and even video discs being used in language teaching.

Another encouraging fact is the increasing familiarity with electronic sound equipment among the general public and, consequently, among teachers and students. Tape machines are no longer so intimidating, and the idea of a teacher producing his own, high-quality taped materials from "on the street" interviews, radio broadcasts, television programs, and narrated short stories and drama for use in the lab is no longer unthinkable.

Space being a limitation, it will not be possible in this article to discuss all the possibilities of using the language laboratory to support classroom activities. However, those who are contemplating investing in a laboratory or those who now have a lab and are trying to decide whether or not to keep it may be interested in the following candid discussion of advantages and disadvantages of the laboratory. No attempt has been made to order the items as to importance, and a "sales pitch" approach has been avoided. It should be helpful to those who are trying to decide whether or not to expend the effort to bring a dead or dying laboratory back to life.

Mr. Henrichsen, former ESL-Media specialist for the University of Tulsa's English Institute for International Students, is now with the Division of Instructional Development, Department of Education, Pago Pago, American Samoa.

LANGUAGE LAB ADVANTAGES

HIGH VOLUME CAPACITY. Few respectable programs would even think of assigning twenty, thirty, or even forty students to one class-

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*Note– At this point it may be important to mention that, despite advances in the field of audio electronics, the student-proof, wear-proof lab has not yet been invented. Anyone who invests in any sort of electronic media support for any educational program should realize that replacement of materials and maintenance and repair of equipment is a factor which cannot be ignored.

PRONUNCIATION PROBLEMS DIFFERENT AND SIMILAR AMONG CANTONESE AND MANDARIN SPEAKERS

by Mo-Shuet Lee

Time and again teachers of foreign languages are reminded of the importance of being aware of the difference between languages, for differences constitute learning problems. The advice is certainly wise and sound. However, the same advice should be carried a step further. Teachers of foreign languages should also be reminded of the importance of being aware, if possible of the nature of the native dialects of their students. Different dialects even of the same language create different learning problems. When Chinese students are taught English, they are thought of as one faceless mass. Too often it has been assumed that they invariably have the same difficulties. The assumption is far from being justifiable, for there are many dialects in the Chinese language.

The major modern Chinese dialects may be divided into the following six groups: Mandarin, Wu, Kan-Hakka, Min, Canton and Hsiang. The Mandarin group may be further divided into three sub-groups: Northern, Southern and Southwestern. The Northern subgroup is spoken in Manchuria, north China proper, Sinkiang, Kansu and parts of Hupeh, Anhwei, and Kiangsu provinces. The dialect of Peking is the best-known member of this sub-group. The Southern subgroup is spoken along the lower Yangtze region in parts of the provinces of Anhwei, Kiangsu, and Hupeh. The Southwestern subgroup is spoken in Szechuan, Yunan, Kweichow, and parts of Hupeh and Kwangsi provinces. The Wu group, which includes the dialects of Shanghai, Wenchow, and Soochow, is spoken in Kiangsu, Chekiang, and eastern Kiangsi provinces. The Kan-Hakka group is spoken in southern Kiangsi provinces and parts of Kwangtung provinces. The Min group, which includes the dialects of Foochow, Amoy, and Swatow, is spoken in northern Fukien and eastern Kwantung provinces, Hainan Island, and Leichow Peninsula. The Cantonese group is spoken principally in Kwangtung and Kwangsi provinces. The Hsiang group is spoken principally in Hunan province. Besides these major groups, there are certain isolated dialects spoken in southern Anhwei, Hunan, and northeastern Kwansi provinces (See Shou-Jung Chan, *Elementary Chinese*, 2nd Edition, Stanford: Stanford University Press), p. xiii.) These dialects are quite different from one another and speakers of different dialects may not be able to understand one another at all. If there were not the same written language, there would be little reason why these dialects should not be recognized as different languages just as French is a different language from Italian or Spanish.

Mo-Shuet Lee, formerly at San Francisco State University and California State College at Hayward, currently teaches ESL and Mandarin at the City College of San Francisco.

The interest of this paper lies mainly with Cantonese and Mandarin. This is an attempt to highlight some of the similarities and differences between Cantonese and Mandarin with might in turn have an important effect on the language acquistion process of speakers whose native dialects are Cantonese and Mandarin.

One major difference between Cantonese and Mandarin is that Cantonese has preserved the final consonant -p, -t, -k of ancient Chinese, but Mandarin has dropped them. Both Cantonese and Mandarin have stops in their consonants, but whereas Cantonese has these stops both in the initial and in the final positions of a syllable (these stops are unexploded when in the final position) Mandarin only has them in the initial position. In the final position of a Cantonese

syllable, either a vowel, or a nasal or an unexploded /-p/-t/-k/ may occur. The nasal may be either a bilabial /m/, dental-alveolar /n/ or a dorsal-velar / ŋ /. In the final position of a Mandarin syllable, only a vowel or a nasal may occur. The nasal can only be either a dental-alveolar /n/ or a dorsal-velar / ŋ /. Notice that the bilabial /m/, though active in the initial position of a Mandarin syllable, does not occur in the final position. The /n/ in Mandarin is also considerably further back than the Cantonese dental /n/. The combination within a Cantonese syllable, particularly the nature of the syllable final, tends to give Cantonese a rather harsh and staccato characteristic, as compared with the mellow and soft effect produced by Mandarin. Foreigners have often suggested that Cantonese sounds more like German while Mandarin sounds more like French. Compare the following:

C V	Cantonese			Mandarin		
Stop+ Vowel	/ ta/	打	'to hit'	/ t'a/	打	'to hit'
C V						
Stop +Diphthong	/ tou/	倒	'upside down'	/ tau/	到	'until'
C V C						
Stop+Vowel+Nasal	/ t'im/	添	'to add'			
	/ t'in/	天	'heaven, sky'	/ t'an/	貪	'to be greedy'
	/ t'i /	停	'to stop'	/ t'a /	湯	'soup'
C V C						
Stop+Vowel+Stop	/ tap/	答	'to answer'			
	/ pat/	八	'eight'			
	/ pak/	百	'hundred'			
C V C						
Nasal+Vowel+Nasal	/ nam/	男	'male'			
	/ nan/	難	'difficult'	/ nan/	男	'male'
	/ man/	蠻	'barbarous'	/ man/	蠻	'barbarous'
	/ ma /	盲	'blind'	/ ma /	忙	'(be) busy'
	/ an/	眼	'eyes'			

Also, a velar nasal / ŋ / occurs both in the initial and final positions of a Cantonese syllable, but it never occurs in the initial position of a Mandarin syllable, only in the final position.

As a result of these differences in the format of a syllable in their own dialects, Cantonese and Mandarin speakers are faced with dissimilar problems when they are trained to master the English language. Since Cantonese speakers are used to having stops in syllable final positions, they have no difficulty in the initial acquisition of the pronunciation of stops in syllable final position in English. However, as the stops in syllable final position in Cantonese are unreleased, it is impossible to produce a voiced-voiceless contrast. Therefore the speakers of Cantonese are conditioned not to perceive or produce this important contrast in English. The habit of the unreleased stop automatically preceded by a short vowel transferred to English produces many homophones: "rope" and "robe" are often pronounced [rop]; "mate" and "maid" are pronounced [met]; "dock" and "dog" are pronounced [dok]. This habit is undoubtedly the most prominent feature of Cantonese English; it characterizes the speech of many, and is the hardest to overcome. Others may have better control with the English diphthongs in front of the stops, but nonetheless still show difficulty in perceiving or producing the voiced-voiceless contrast in the syllable final position.

On the other hand, Mandarin speakers are faced with a totally different language habit when they find stops in the syllable final position. As has been explained, stops only occur in the syllable initial position in Mandarin, before a vowel. Their natural reaction to the new language is one of the following two. They either tend to miss out the stops altogether if there are nasals preceding the stops as in "wind"-and "bank"-"wind" [wɪnd] resembles [wɪn or [wɪŋ], and "bank" resembles [bæn] or [bæŋ]. Or they add /ə/ to all the stops. For example, they will pronounce "map" [mæp] as [mæpə]; "Jude" [dʒu d] as [dʒu də]; and "coke" [kouk] as [kouk ə]. When the syllable final is an [n] in English, the Mandarin speakers might substitute it with an [n], e.g. "sum" [sʌm] as "sun" [sʌn].

The second major difference between Cantonese and Mandarin is that Cantonese does not have any retroflexed articulation, but Mandarin does. The absence of the retroflexed articulation in Cantonese results in the speakers' inability to perceive the /l–r/ contrast in English as in "loyal", "royal"; "collect", "correct"; "play" and "pray". Even when they can perceive the contrasts, they have difficulty showing the contrasts when they attempt the pairs. The English /r/ is often replaced by an /l/. In this respect, the Mandarin speakers have an advantage. They have retroflexed articulation in their native dialect. For instance, [ˊren] 人 'a man'; [run] 潤 'moist' and [ˊrou] 柔 'soft, gentle'.

Cantonese and Mandarin also differ in that Cantonese has one fricative fewer than Mandarin. Cantonese only has the dental-alveolar fricative /s/; Mandarin has both the dental-alveolar fricative /s/ and the palato-alveolar / /.

	Cantonese			Mandarin	
/s/	[sam] 三	'three'			
	[san] 山	'hill'	[san]	三	'three'
	[sa] 生	'to give birth to: be unfamiliar with'	[sa]	喪	'funeral'
			[an]	山	'hill'
			[a]	商	'commerce, trade'

Consequently, Cantonese speakers encounter difficulty in separating in perception and production such pairs as "see", "she"; "parcel", "partial". "Sugar" [ʃʊ=ʃə] is ever so often mispronounced as [sʊ.gə]. Even after perception improves, there is difficulty in articulating these contrasts. Mandarin speakers, naturally, are fortunately spared another burden generally suffered by Cantonese speakers.

In spite of the disparities already described between Cantonese and Mandarin, there is nevertheless some common ground where Cantonese and Mandarin speakers fight the same battle. It has been pointed out that Cantonese has one fricative less than Mandarin, but still there are several more fricatives that English has which both Cantonese and Mandarin do not have. Cantonese has the labio-dental voiceless /f/, dental-alveolar voiceless /s/ and the glottal /h/; Mandarin has the labio-dental voiceless /f/, dental-alveolar voiceless /s/; palato-alveolar voiceless /ʃ/ and the glottal /h/. English, however, has both the voiced and voiceless labio-dental /v/ and /f/; voiced and voiceless interdental /ð/ and /θ/; voiced and voiceless dental-alveolar /z/ and /s/; voiced and voiceless palato-alveolar /ʒ/ and /ʃ/ and also the glottal /h/. Both Cantonese and Mandarin speakers therefore are inclined to replace fricatives in English absent intheir own dialects with those that are present. They often replace /v/ and /θ/ by /f/; and /s, z/–for Cantonese speakers also /ʃ/–by /s/. Because of the dental quality in the Cantonese and Mandarin [t], /ð/ is often replaced by the unaspirated /t/. /ʒ/ is often replaced by a retracted variety of /s/ which

is very close to /s/. Also interesting to notice is that the voiced labio-dental /v/ is not only substituted by its voiceless version of /f/, it is also frequently substituted by the semi-vowel /w/, so that no distinction is preceived or produced between such pairs as "vest", "west"; and "vain", "wane".

Cantonese and Mandarin also share the similarity that they do not have voiced stops in their dialects, such as /b,d,g/ in English. They are aspirated and unaspirated /p,t,k/ instead. With English stops, aspiration is not phonemic, but determined by the phonetic context. In the initial position of a syllable, /p,t,k/ are generally aspirated as in "pin" [p'in], "tin" [t'in], "kin" [k'in] and "akin" [ə k'in]. No aspiration occurs when the voiceless stops /p,t,k/ are preceded by /s/, e.g. "spin" [spin], "sting" [stiŋ] and "skin" [skin]. In Cantonese and Mandarin, the aspiration in /p,t,k/ is phonemic, as shown in the following minimal pairs:

	Cantonese			Mandarin		
[p]	/ pi /	兵	'soldier'	/ pa /	幫	'to help'
[p']	/ p' /	拼	'to struggle'	/ p'a /	膀	'swollen'
[t]	/ t /	丁	'a male'	/ ta /	當	'to act as'
[t']	/ t' /	聽	'to hear'	/ t'a /	湯	'soup'
[k]	/ k /	經	'to pass by'	/ ka /	剛	'firm and strong'
[k']	/ k' /	傾	'to incline'	/ k'a /	康	'health'

Since /b,d,g/ do not exist in Cantonese or Mandarin, the speakers often substitute unaspirated /p,t,k/ for these phonemes. The unaspirated /p/ in "spring" [spriŋ] and the voiced /b/ in "bring" [briŋ] are indistinguishable to the Cantonese and Mandarin speakers.

The English dark /l/ is also a common problem for both Cantonese and Mandarin speakers. The English phoneme /l/ has the two allophones of clear [l] and dark [ɬ]. The use of the allophones is determined by the phonetic environment. Clear /l/ is used when /l/ occurs initially or in an intervocalic position, and dark /ɬ/ for final positions or followed by another consonant. The /l/ in Cantonese and Mandarin, on the other hand, is always a clear /l/. It is a sound which does not occur finally in Cantonese or Mandarin. Therefore, the Cantonese speakers and Mandarin speakers often have difficulty in articulating the final /l/'s in English words. They often replace the dark /l/ by a clear /l/ or a variety of /u/ because of the acoustic affinity of [u] and [ɬ], both being produced with the back of the tongue raised towards the velum.

Finally, length and tension are not phonemic in both the Cantonese and Mandarin vowels. Consequently, speakers of both dialects tend to be unable to perceive and recognize the difference between long and short vowels in English. Much too often, they pronounce as homophones the following pairs in English: "fill", "fell"; "sit", "seat"; "wick", "weak".

In summation, it should not be assumed that all Chinese native speakers have the same learning problems with English. Chinese is a language with many dialects and some dialects may differ as much from some other dialect as do some languages from some other language. For example, it is not unusual for Cantonese and Mandarin speakers to converse in English in order to be mutually intelligible. Cantonese and Mandarin are vastly different in several areas, though similar in some others. It is advisable for the teacher of English to be aware of this fact and thus be better quipped to help these students.

DISCRETE STRUCTURE-POINT TESTING: PROBLEMS AND ALTERNATIVES

by Kenneth G. Aitken

This paper is intended to present some reasons for reconsidering the use of discrete structure point tests of language proficiency. It is also intended to suggest an alternative basis for designing proficiency tests.

Perhaps to begin it would be useful to define some terms used in language testing. Language tests have been divided into four categories based on their use. Language aptitude tests are used to predict probable success or failure in certain kinds of language study. Language achievement tests are used to determine how effective teaching has been, or how much of what has been taught has been learned. Diagnostic tests point out areas in which a student requires additional concentrated teaching and study. Language proficiency tests indicate whether or not an individual is proficient enough in a language to perform certain tasks or undertake certain training programs in the target language. As we previously stated, the focus of this paper is on proficiency testing.

John B. Carroll (1961) has divided proficiency tests into two types: "discrete structure point" (or "discrete point") and "integrative" tests. "Discrete point" tests are based on the assumption that there are a given number of specific structure points, the mastery of which constitutes "knowing" a language. On the other hand an "integrative" test is one based on the premise that "knowing" a language must be expressed in some type of functional statement such as, 'He knows enough English to read the paper, but not enough to follow the news on television!' (Spolsky 1968).

Discrete point tests tap those areas that linguists include in linguistic competence: vocabulary knowledge, recognition of correct grammatical structures, sound discrimination, etc.–in other words, the mechanics of the language. Integrative tests, Jakobovits (1970) contends, tap communicative competence factors–i.e. those factors crucial to how a language is used for communicative purposes.

There is reason to believe that the discrete point approach to language proficiency testing, one of the primary tools of disciples of the audio-lingual method of teaching a foreign language, is based on erroneous assumptions. The discrete point approach is fundamental to the approach taken by Fries (1952) and Lado (1957) who pioneered the audio-lingual method.

The discrete point approach to language teaching and testing rests on both traditional verbal learning theory (Dulay and Burt, 1972) and American structuralist linguistic theory (Oller 1973 a). The basic assumptions are:

(1) The surface structure of a language can be systematically described, and its elements listed and compared with any other language, similarly described.

(2) The mastery of a language may be divided into the mastery of a number of separate skills; listening, speaking, reading, and writing. These skills in turn may be divided into a number of distinct items. It assumes that to have developed a criterion level of mastery of skills and items listed for that language (e.g. 50,000 discrete items) is mastery of the language.

(3) The contrastive analysis hypothesis, (which states that if language learning is habit formation, where L2 is similar to L1 there will be a positive transfer of learning, and where L2 and L1 differ there will be a negative transfer: i.e. mother tongue interference) is true.

It has been convincingly argued by others that on theoretical and empirical grounds the contrastive analysis hypothesis is unsound (Dulay and Burt 1972, Upshur 1962, and Wardhaugh 1970). In this paper we will focus our attention on assumptions (1) and (2) as these ideas continue to prevail while the number of adherents to the CA hypothesis dwindles.

There are serious theoretical objections to assumption (1) because it assumes that knowledge of a language is finite in the sense that it is possible to make a list of all its items. However, if such an impossible task were completed, and a discrete point test constructed based on a representative sample of the language the test would be too long to be practical. On the other hand anything less than a representative sample of the total language would significantly affect the validity of the tests as a determiner of language proficiency. The criterion for composing the representative sample would have to be on the basis of functional necessity, which involves defining the functional load of ability, for example, to recognize the appropriateness of a given verb form. Spolsky (1968 b) argues that to do this we would have to collect a list of minimal pair utterances in which the distinction is vital: that is, where a single linguistic difference in a given situation will lead to complete misunderstanding–an extremely rare situation. The rarity of such a situation is the result (and theoretical cause) of the redundancy of natural languages.

The second assumption is, according to Spolsky (1968 b), crucial to this approach to testing:

> The key assumption of the discrete-point approach is that it is possible to translate sentences. . . .(like) "He doesn't know enough English to write an essay, but he seems to be able to follow lectures and read his textbooks without much trouble.". . . .into a list of sentences. . . . .(like) "He is unable to distinguish between the phonemes /i/ and /iy/.". . . . .The key requirement of discrete point testing is that we could quantify "He knows the words on this list." (1968 b:92)

Research by Spolsky et al. (1968) and other psycholinguists has isolated the ability to utilize the redundancy of natural language as a factor in "knowing" a language even in situations of reduced redundancy. Redundancy is the property of natural languages that allows one to predict missing elements from the context (Carroll 1964:44-65). Highly redundant messages tend to be repetitive and to contain relatively little information per element. By "information" is meant the informativeness of the elements (Shannon and Weaver 1949). Since the redundancy factor in natural language allows us to predict missing elements in a message or utterance, then the greater the redundancy, the greater the chance the message will be comprehended. A model of understanding speech must then include the ability to make valid guesses about a certain percentage of unknown items in the language.

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Spolsky (1968 a) contends that this raises some serious theoretical questions about the value of deciding a person knows a language because he knows certain items in the language, i.e. assumption (2). The principle of redundancy suggests that it will not be possible to demonstrate that any given language item is essential to successful communication, nor to establish the functional load to any given item in communication as discussed previously.

Looking at it from another angle, we note that assumption (2) has roots in the hypothesis that the meaning of a linguistic form is defined as the situation in which the speaker utters that form and the response it calls forth in the hearer (Bloomfield 1933:139). Oller, Sales and Harrington (1969:318) argue that this definition is both misleading and inadequate. The meaning of a linguistic unit in any communicative situation, they state, cannot be adequately construed as a given speaker's situation and hearer's response; rather it is dependent on (1) at least one individual's history of experience with that unit in other situations, and (2) the inductive-deductive

processes which enable that individual to relate the information from his history of experience to the situation in question. This definition places a premium upon the role of one's personal experience bank in language use. Assumption (2) does not take into account the role of previous personal experience in the assignment of meaning in language use. Counter evidences to this assumption are utterances like "Why don't you wipe that silly grin off your face," which rely heavily upon the listener's previous personal experience to provide him with the criteria for an appropriate response.

As Belasco (1969) has observed, many points of grammar all well learned, but learned separately and unrelatedly do not constitute proficiency in a language. In fact, they cannot in principle. Language is essentially different in type from any list of discrete items. The essence of discrete point fallacy, argues Oller (1973), is the incorrect assumption that a test of many isolated and separate points of grammar or lexicon is a test of language in any realistic sense.

It seems that the discrete point approach to objectively test language proficiency is not the pedagogical panacea many language teachers had assumed. It is unfortunate that so many have made the much stronger claim that the discrete point approach is the best basis for language test design.

Having examined some of the theoretical problems relating to the discrete structure point approach to testing, we shall turn our attention to the integrative test approach. Our object, we must remember, is to develop an approach to testing that can be used in making proficiency examinations. Proficiency tests, we defined as being used to tell us whether or not an individual is proficient enough in a language to perform certain tasks, or to undertake a certain training program in that language. Our previous discussion suggests the impossibility of determining language proficiency in linguistic terms. A more promising approach might be to work for a functional definition of levels of proficiency. In other words, we do not aim at how much of a language the student knows, but rather, we test his ability to operate in a specified sociolinguistic situation with specified ease or effect.

Spolsky (1968 b) suggests that starting with functional statements of this sort, the language tester's task is to find a reliable, valid, and economical method of rating a student's proficiency in these terms. He proposes a two stage research strategy. First, ignoring costs in time and money, the tester should have the subject evaluated by trained panels of judges in situations of the sort described functionally in the rating scale. Then these evaluations become the yardstick to which more economical measures are correlated. The degree of correlation will reflect the value of the ad hoc tests and make clear the degree of doubt that must be kept in their interpretation.

Oller (1973 b), realizing that language teachers cannot wait for linguists to solve all the problems and theoretical issues involved, recommends several tests of integrative skills, especially cloze tests and dictation, both types of tests requiring control of the natural redundancy of language. Another integrative test involving error recognition was recommended by Sibayan (1971).

Cloze tests (Taylor 1973), originally conceived as reading comprehension and/or readability measure, are constructed by systemetically deleting every n-th word from a prose passage. In foreign languages, every seventh word is usually deleted over a passage of about 375 words, leaving the first and last sentences intact. The subject must read the mutilated passage and, based on his comprehension of it, and his language experience, guess the deleted words. The score is based on the percentage of correct guesses. Another scoring method involves accepting any contexually acceptable answer. Answers in both scoring methods must not violate any grammatical restrictions. Oller (1973 c) and his reference provide an excellent background and review of the use of cloze in ESL, including several validation studies.

Cloze tests can be constructed that are criterion based in relation to the situation in which the students are being trained to function (Aitken 1975). For example, if we were preparing a group of foreign engineering students to enter a post-graduate program in civil engineering, the prose passages we used to create the cloze test might be chosen from

(continued on page 18)

PROVERBS AND PROPREDICATES IN ENGLISH

by Yao Shen

This is the last of three related articles by Dr. Yao Shen, Professor of English as the University of Hawaii, author of numerous articles and publications and a frequent contributor to the TESL Reporter.

Proverbs and propredicates are features in grammar. Similar to pronouns (pro-nouns) which substitute for nouns, pro-verbs (pro-verbs) substitute for verbs or verb strings, and propredicates (pro-predicates) substitute for predicates. Such substitution is one of the grammatical functions of the auxiliaries and the modals in English. In this article, auxiliaries: *do, have,* and *be*; and modals: *can* and *will* are used to illustrate this function of substitution.

Verb
1a. My mainland friends *gobble* macadamia nuts the way
b. they *do* peanuts.

Verb
2a. John *likes* Hawaii the way
b. he *does* the mainland.

Verb
3a. Mary *respected* her teachers the way
b. she *did* her parents.

In each of the following examples, auxiliaries: *do, have,* and *be*; and modals: *can* and *will* in the second simple predicate (b) substitute for the verb string in the first one (a).

1a. My mainland friends *do gobble* macadamia nuts the way
b. they *do* peanuts.

2a. John *does like* Hawaii the way
b. he *does* the mainland.

3a. Mary *did respect* her teachers the way
b. she *did* her parents.

4a. Men *have learned* from books they way
b. they *have* from each other.

5a. Men *are living* in houses they way
b. termites *are* in mounds.

6a. Children *are loved* by their parents the way
b. they *are* by their teachers.

7a. Some people *can eat* with chopsticks the way
b. others *can* with knives and forks.

8a. John *would protect* his friends the way
b. he *would* himself.

9a. Mary *has been studying* with Alice the way
b. John *has (been)* with Paul.

10a. Passengers *are being examined* at the airport the way
b. packages *are* at the post office.

11a. Our compositions *would have been graded* by the professors the way
b. our sentences *would (have been)* by the assistants.

In each of the following examples, the auxiliary or the modal which is the predicate of the second simple sentence (b) substitutes for the predicate of the first one (a).

1a. I *think* the way
b. you *do.*

2a. Martha *studies English* the way
b. Mary *does.*

3a. John *felt adversely toward smoking* the way
b. Paul *did.*

4a. John *has lived frugally* the way
b. you *have.*

5a. I *am flying to the mainland* the way
b. everyone else *is.*

6a. The windows *were closed securely* the way
b. the door *was.*

7a. Martha *can do anything here*
b. if Mary *can.*

8a. John *will catch the bus to school*
b. if Jim *will.*

9a. John *has been calling Mary as frequently* as
b. you *have (been).*

10a. Students *are being taken care of as much in detail* as
b. their papers *are.*

11a. John *could have gone farther* than
b. you *could (have).*

12a. Martha *would have been studying as hard* as
b. Mary *would (have).*

13a. The women *would have been paid as adequately* as
b. the men *would (have been).*

Five different kinds of situations (A-E) in which propredicates often occur are given below. Needless to say, they are not the only five in the English language in which a propredicate may occur.

A. Answers to yes-no questions usually occur with a propredicate.

Yes-no questions	Answers
1. *Did* Peter *come?*	1. Yes, he *did.* No, he *didn't.*
2. *Do* you *speak English?*	2. Yes, I *do.* No, I *don't.*
3. *Hasn't* Mary *done the dishes?*	3. Yes, she *has.* No, she *hasn't.*
4. *Was* the door *closed* on time?	4. Yes, it *was.* No, it *wasn't.*
5. *Aren't* they *finishing* their work?	5. Yes, they *are.* No, they *aren't.*
6. *Could* Larry *give me a ride?*	6. Yes, he *could.* No, he *couldn't.*
7. *Will* they *be on the plane?*	7. Yes, they *will.* No, they *will not.*

B. Tag-questions normally occur with a propredicate.

1. Kathie *paints, doesn't* she?
2. Carol *didn't buy anything, did* she?
3. Juliet *hasn't seen her teacher, has* she?
4. The letter *was typed by the secretary, wasn't* it?
5. Henry *was having fun, wasn't* he?
6. Mark *can pick me up, can't* he?
7. Joe *will not go away, will* he?

C. Statements are often responded to with a propredicate.

Speaker A:	Speaker B:	
1. Martha *dances.*	1. She *does.*	1. She *does not.*
2. John *knew English.*	2. He *did.*	2. He *did not.*
3. Mary *has finished her work.*	3. She *has.*	3. She *has not.*
4. Dinner *is being served.*	4. It *is.*	4. It *is not.*
5. I *was thinking of you.*	5. You *were.*	5. You *were not.*
6. We *can go home now.*	6. We *can.*	6. We *cannot.*
7. They *would laugh at me.*	7. They *would.*	7. They *would not.*

D. When two affinnative statements with the same simple predicate are joined by . . .*and*. . .*too*, the second statement often occurs with a pro-predicate.

1. Teachers *study*, and students *do* too.
2. I *saw John*, and you *did* too.
3. Henry *has gone home*, and Carol *has* too.
4. The cookies *were baked yesterday*, and the pie *was* too.
5. John *is coming to the party*, and Mary *is* too.
6. Michael *can take me in his car*, and Larry *can* too.
7. Alice *would help me*, and Paul *would* too.

E. When two negative statements with the same simple predicate are joined by . . . *and. . .either*, the second statement often occurs with a propredicate.

1. Teachers *don*'t *study*, and students *don*'t either.
2. I *did*n't *see John*, and you *did*n't either.
3. Henry *has*n't *gone home*, and Carol *has*n't either.
4. The cookies *were*n't *baked yesterday*, and the pie *was*n't either.
5. John *is*n't *coming to the party*, and Mary *is*n't either.
6. Michael *could*n't *take me in his car*, and Larry *could*n't either.
7. Alice *wouldn't help me*, and Paul *would*n't either.

In an expanded sentence, the tense in the proverb or in the propredicate in the second simple sentence need not be the same as the tense in the first simple one.

1. Our parents *loved* us the way they *do* their grandchildren now.
2. Few Hawaiians *live* now the way they *did*.
3. John *called* Mary every week, and he still *does*.
4. Students *have* been studying the way they *had* (been).
5. John *was* teaching, and he still *is*.
6. Mary *could* speak English fluently the way you *can*.
7. I *will* tell Mary the story the way you *would*.

In an expanded sentence, the proverb or propredicate in the second simple sentence need not be the same auxiliary or modal as that in the first one.

1. I *have* always liked my teachers the way I *do* my parents.
2. Mary *is* teaching conscientiously the way she always *has*.
3. John *can* be asking for you the way he *did* a while ago.
4. I *will* study harder than you *are* now.
5. Alice *would* have finished the shopping sooner than you *have*.
6. Paul *did* work faster than you ever *could*.

In an expanded sentence, the proverb or propredicate in the simple sentence need not be the same in the affirmative or negative as that in the first one.

1. I *have not* cooked with electricity the way you *have* with gas.
2. John *is* having a good time the way Mary *is not*.

Proverbs and propredicates help a person's English from being repetitious, cumbersome, and monotonous through grammar. They merit attention in English language learning.

BOOK REVIEW

Anderson, Cora *English Idioms and Idiomatic Expressions, Workbook 1* 219 pp. paperback
Book Marketing Ltd.

This very practical book of sixty lessons on the English idiom should prove useful to both ESL teachers and students.

Each lesson has five idioms with explanations and examples, a fill-in exercise, a writing exercise, and three idiomatic expressions with definitions. At the end of ten lessons, there are five Review Lessons compiled from two lessons each. Included in these lessons are fill-in exercises for both idioms and idiomatic expressions, and a composition exercise (where students must write original sentences using the idioms).

Chinese students may find the idiom index with approximate Chinese translations for all idioms and idiomatic expressions helpful.

This book may be ordered direct from Book Marketing Ltd. Tung Chon Factory Building, 653 King's Road, 9th floor, North Point, Hong Kong.

No price was quoted, but the editor was assured the books would be less than $1.50 American currency.

Alice C. Pack

GOLDY LOCKS OR CHOCOLATE CAKES?

by Gary R. Oddous

Goldy Locks or chocolate cakes may not have an integral part in most classrooms, but they have become ways to actively interest and engage students in meaningful and imaginative conversation.

As many other authors have noted in the *TESL Reporter*, conversation is only progressive to the point that it interests and encourages the student in an active expression of the target language.

Having taught ESL to the French people, adults and teenagers, I have found that "story telling," and the demonstration of a student's favorite recipe, are two ways to activate the student's desire to speak and learn a language.

Story telling is based on the idea that both student and teacher are somewhat familiar with the story to be told. Universal children's stories are excellent for this, such as *Goldy Locks, The Three Bears*, etc. Familiarity with the story gives both the student and teacher a framework from which to work. Before—usually the day before—each story is told, the students are warned which story will be chosen so that they can refresh their memories and mentally prepare the dialog of the story.

When first introducing this method, I have found it best to group four to six capable students in front of the class as a demonstration group. The teacher starts, then calls on each succeeding student in the group so that each might have an equal part in telling the story. The purpose of such a demonstration group is only to show the other students how it is done.

There are two variations of the story telling method which I have found to be successful. One is to place a group in front of the class (like the demonstration group) and, after the story is told, class members ask previously prepared questions about the story which they direct to specific members of the group who told the story. Students are encouraged to ask imaginative questions. For example, with *The Three Bears*, students have asked: "How old was the baby bear?" or, "What color was the bear's house?" Such questions are not contained in the actual dialog of the story, but encourage the students to think on their own. Such a method also facilitates a conversation between fellow students. They become the instigators of conversation, not the teacher. It also gives the narrators a chance to hear and understand a fellow student's question, then to provide, or invent, an answer. The teacher must preface, however, that they answer in complete sentences.

Another variation possible is to break the class up into groups of four or five students, and to have each group tell an assigned story. However, students should have the chance to choose their stories first. Then, instead of asking each other questions, the students are encouraged to be imaginative and to add details to the story that aren't actually in it.

The underlying theory of such a conversational method is two fold: 1) The student will speak more easily if the dialog is already familiar to him, thus encouraging success which begins to carry over into more original, spontaneous speech. 2) Each student sees himself as an integral part of the goal to complete a story, and most of all, to do it well. Each student begins to take pride in his part, making it as flawless as possible, and use his imagination, both by inventing details within the story, and by asking imaginative questions.

This conversational method has proved to aid students who are shy, as well as those who are more bold. Shy students find this method easy and fun. They have a pretext to speak. They don't have to answer the teacher; instead, they answer and converse among themselves. Once they gain confidence in themselves, and are aware that others see and hear

them speak, they shed their shyness and become some of the most enthusiastic students.

On the other hand, the more bold students begin to perfect their already mildly fluent speech. They can use their minds to delve deeper into imaginative situations, which usually means delving deeper into English grammar and idiom.

Another method to encourage conversation is through the demonstration of a favorite recipe. Each student is asked to prepare his favorite recipe in English, and to demonstrate it in front of the class explaining the process and going through the motions of its preparation. Such a demonstration requires the student not only to learn new vocabulary, but to explain a process, which requires transitional elements and often requires the use of many English idioms.

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In order to help create situational language use, the teacher should bring some basic culinary utensils to class which the students can use while demonstrating the recipes.

Male and female students alike find this an enjoyable way to use the language. It is interesting for every one to hear these recipes from different parts of the world.

Several variations as sequential follow-ups can result from the original demonstrations: 1) The next week, each student who demonstrated a recipe can actually bring the product for others to taste and see what the demonstration represented. 2) Students observing the demonstration can be asked to take notes on the demonstration then try to make the dish at home and bring it the following week. (This tests the exactness of communication between demonstrator and observer.) 3) The recipe can be duplicated and handed to each student after which already prepared foods from the recipe are given to the students to try.

The emphasis on the actual preparation of the recipes is to give a meaningful insistence to the simulated demonstration. Students enjoy using language for meaningful purposes. The psychological aspect of a physical representation, such as food, of one's efforts in a second language, is rewarding to the students. It creates a real-life situation and a relaxing and sometimes humorous atmosphere results in the language-learning setting.

Such methods as these, however, obviously are not answers to all of the conversational needs of the ESL classroom. Rather, they are examples of an underlying theory much needed in the ESL setting. The demonstration of a recipe, an explanation of how to repair a flat tire, and a story-telling experience in which the student is an integral link, provide the student with a meaningful experience of involvement in the target language.

The teacher himself must feel he has an important part in the act of the student's language acquisition. A book with blanks requiring lexical fills does not create a meaningful experience for the student--teachers can and must create those experiences for stuents. The classroom is a place in which the student should learn for himself that a second language isn't just a classroom language, but one that can be meaningful *outside* the classroom and one that actually exists to be so used.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Richard A. Via. *English in Three Acts* Price $5.95

The University Press of Hawaii, 1976 paperback 180 pages

This carefully planned text is a must for teachers of intermediate and advanced students of oral English.

Richard Via, a theatre professional for twenty-three years, explains and helps the teacher with the preparation so necessary for successful use of drama in the classroom.

In addition to seven original plays and numerous other suggested plays which teachers may want to use, the book explains the purpose of drama in the classroom, gives numerous preparatory suggestions–including breathing and voice exercises, improvisations, and other classroom exercies.

Amateur dramatists will find the book's numerous suggestions for ESL casting, scene study, makeup, etc. extremely helpful. Included, too, are twenty-two answers to questions often asked by ESL teachers who want to add drama to their other oral teaching skills in the classroom.

This excellent text fills a long felt need in the ESL field.

Alice C. Pack

Jean A. McConochie. *Twentieth Century American Short Stories* Price $2.60

Collier Macmillan, 1975. paperback 123 pages

This is a good supplementary text for advanced reading students. It consists of nine American short stories from this century. Three of these are divided into two parts. Each of the twelve chapters contains accompanying material to be used in furthering student understanding of the material read. The glossary for each story contains words or idioms that are usually not familiar to even vanced student. Vocabulary, grammar, and syntax exercises accompany each section. Biographical notes on each of the story authors are found at the end of the book.

Kenyon Moss

Bertha C. Neustadt. *Speaking of the USA: A Reader for Discussion.* Price $4.95

Harper and Row, 1975 paperback 275 pages

An intermediate to advanced level text with 21 chapters in seven different areas: libraries, American government, the news media, the arts, education and the family, politics, and a conclusion. The seven sections each have at least two chapters. Each chapter is followed by exercises designed to help increase vocabulary in addition to reading and listening comprehension. There are also discussion and composition topics at the end of the chapters.

Additional exercises on vocabulary appear at the end of each section. Dictation and listening comprehension relating to each chapter are located at the end of the book.

This reader is designed to prepare students for college by helping them develop study skills needed at the university level. It also introduces them to some cultural aspects of of America.

Kenyon Moss

IS THE LANGUAGE LAB DEAD?

(continued from page 2)

room or teacher; yet this number of students is what a language laboratory normally handles. This means economy in the long run. The initial hardware and software costs are offset by savings in the area of teacher salaries.

HIGH FACE VALUE. A language lab looks impressive in program brochures and to visitors. It makes even a new and inexperienced program appear professionally established. Students also feel that they are getting more for their money when they see all the expensive equipment available for their use.

COINCIDENCE OF PROGRAMS. Most labs are able to play several programs at once and allow the students or teacher to select the one they need most. Thus, the experienced lab teacher can conduct several classes at the same time.

INDIVIDUALIZATION. Especially in a library-style laboratory, the student has more freedom in choosing his own program of learning and is able to move ahead at his own rate of speed.

LAB AS AN EXTRA. Students who might never sign up for an eight-hour class do not seem so awed by a four-hour class supplemented with an additional four hours of lab, especially if an attempt is made to make the lab work interesting and meaningful.

SCHEDULING FLEXIBILITY. Students do not always have to go to lab together with all the other members of their particular class. The scheduling of "lab hour" may be flexible and fit into their class schedule wherever it is most convenient.

EXPOSURE TO NATIVE SPEAKERS. This is a particular advantage to programs located in areas where very few or no native speakers of the target language are available. Lab exposure to native speakers may be in drill or in communicative situations.

EXPOSURE TO A VARIETY OF SPEAKERS. Even in programs which have native-speaker teachers, the exposure to different native-speaker pronunciations and voices is a definite advantage in preparing students for the real world.

CONSISTENCY OF INFORMATION. All students who listen to the same tape hear the same lesson, regardless of their position in the classroom, the hour of the class, or the mood of the instructor.

ACCOUNTABILITY. Although the value of some types of laboratory practice may be debated, there is little argument about the definite accountability of laboratory practice. The student who has been to a well-supervised lab for an hour has had an hour of practice. There is no guarantee that the student sent out on his own "to talk to people" has done anything worthwhile.

TEACHER FREEDOM. Without interrupting other students in the group, the teacher is free to concentrate on an individual student and his particular problems while the group's teaching program continues.

SENSE OF ISOLATION. The use of carrels and headphones gives a sense of isolation which is often helpful. Shy students who avoid speaking in a classroom group situation need no longer be afraid of others hearing their errors. This sense of isolation is often an effective aid to concentration also.

PHYSICAL FACILITY. A large, acoustically well-designed room with individual carrels may be useful for more than listening to tapes. It is often an ideal area for testing (listening comprehension or other skills). The privacy afforded by carrels makes looking at another student's paper less of a temptation. Also, in a program using a number of small classrooms it may be the only large room and a reasonable substitute for an auditorium.

LANGUAGE LABORATORY DISADVANTAGES

EXPENSE. The cost of quality materials and equipment is increasing along with everything else. Although the lab may pay for itself in saved teacher salaries over a period of time, the initial cost is sometimes prohibitive for small or beginning programs. The continual expense of materials replacement and equipment repair must also be taken into consideration.

OUTDATED MATERIALS. Many of the available commercial tapes are pattern-practice relics which, besides being at odds with many current teaching methods, are usually boring to students and deadening to their motivation to learn.

STILTED SPEECH. Many voices on prepared tapes are artificial in both pronunciation and grammar. Although there are encouraging moves to a more natural style of speaking by some producers, care should still be exercised. All lab materials should be thoroughly examined before purchase.

BINDING COMMITMENT TO CHOSEN MATERIALS. Once lab materials have been purchased or produced, there is a great commitment to that particular set of materials. Deleting a few inapplicable parts of a lesson or adding a few more questions is very difficult. On-the-spot improvisation is next to impossible.

EQUIPMENT FAILURE. No piece of equipment will serve forever without ever needing repair or maintenance. Some brands are worse than others and require constant repair work. It is wise to check equipment thoroughly for durability and to provide for proper maintenance beforehand. *Caveat emptor.*

DIMINISHED AUDIO QUALITY. Even with today's electronic technology, sound quality is rarely as good in a lab as it is in real life. This problem can be minimized by insisting on top-quality equipment and materials and regular maintenance.

LACK OF PERSONALITY. Person-to-person, eye-to-eye contact is not available with an impersonal machine. The result may be student apathy and loss of motivation. Interesting materials and individual teacher attention may help remedy the situation.

LOSS OF EXTRA-VERBAL SIGNALS. In the typical audio-only setup, the student is unable to observe important gestures or facial expressions which may be important to the meaning of an utterance. Television provides one solution to this problem, but is beyond the means of most labs.

INDIVIDUAL MONITORING. Individual student monitoring is not always an advantage. While listening to one student, the teacher must ignore the other thirty-nine (see Hammerly: 1974).

DUAL TRAINING OF PERSONNEL. The laboratory teacher must be skillfully trained in two areas: language teaching and laboratory operation. To have an effective laboratory, a trained lab instructor should be in control. Turning everything over to part-time student assistants is just asking for trouble. This does not mean that student assistants should not be utilized at all. It only means that they should be under the direction of an experienced lab director.

MINDLESS REPETITION. After long periods spent in the lab listening to pattern drills, many students develop a talent for mindless repetition. They parrot an utterance perfectly while thinking about a completely different subject. Careful selection of materials and activities is the only way to avoid this bad habit.

PHYSICAL INFLEXIBILITY. Although portable models are available for small groups, a full-scale language laboratory is very difficult to move or store in a closet. Likewise, it is hard to conduct a normal language class in a room of carrels. In other words, having a lab means dedicating one room to permanent laboratory use.

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Discrete Structure Point Testing

(continued from page 9)

current journal literature in the field of civil engineering. On the other hand, if the group is comprised of new immigrants who are studying English and plan to become citizens, perhaps, having discussed national geography, government, culture and history in their lessons, we might select a passage from some of the appropriate literature on these topics for the cloze test.

Dictation as a test has had its ups and downs in popularity among professional language test writers. After many years of relative unpopularity, dictation is now being recognized as an effective diagnostic device for the classroom teacher, and an excellent integrative test to include in a language proficiency test battery (Oller 1973 b). Of course, many of us knew it all the time.

Dictation passages may be presented in a number of ways. Valette (1967) recommends one effective technique of administering a test dictation.

> "First, the whole passage is read at normal speed. The students are told not to write, just to listen carefully. Then the passage is read a phrase at a time, with pauses during which the students write down what they have heard. At this time the teacher may read each phrase either once of twice, as long as he is consistent. (At the teacher's discretion, punctuation marks may be given in the target language.) Finally, the entire passage is read again at normal speed, and the students are given a few minutes for final revision. It is imperative that the teacher never repeat a particular phrase at a student's request." (p. 140)

Scoring the dictation may be done in various ways. One method is to start with a total score of 20 and deduct half a point for each spelling error and one point for each other error. Another method would be to give one point for each word correct in the passage transcribed. A third method would be to give a certain number of points per phrase transcribed correctly.

Typical student errors in taking dictation include omitting words, using the wrong word, putting the words in the wrong order, and using ungrammatical phrases and sentences. For further discussion the reader is referred to Oller (1973 b) and his references.

Like the cloze passages, dictation passages can be criterion related; that is chosen from any appropriate context in which the students are preparing to function. Dictations of lists of items, or short chunks of data, as suggested by some teachers, may be appropriate for testing comprehension in some areas, but overall proficiency is probably best tested with a passage dictation.

Error recognition tests of the type recommended by Sibayan (1971) are somewhat more difficult to construct than the other two integrative tests, yet they are still simple enough that valid and reliable items can be constructed by an ESL teacher with little experience in test construction. Each item consists of four choices, the first three being statements in which grammatical elements, capitalization and punctuation are critical. The fourth choice is (D) No mistakes. The directions to the student are as follows:

> Each item below contains three sentences. These sentences may be correct, or one of them may have a mistake in grammar, punctuation, or capitalization. If all the sentences are correct, mark (D) on your answer sheet. If one of the sentences contains an error, mark the letter of that sentence on your answer sheet.

There are two ways to construct the choices in the item. One could choose any three potentially difficult sentences for the first three choices. However, if one were to make the three sentences into a continuous thought progression, the degree of integration of language skills would be extended. The following test item is an example of this type of integration.

A. Since Jack was five years old he has played the piano.

B. Jack was hoped to become a famous musician.

C. Unfortunately, Jack never learned how to read music.

D. No mistakes.

Harris (1969:73) recommends error recognition tasks, combined with sentence completion tasks, as valid objective measures of writing ability. To the extent that cloze tests are sentence completion tasks, the combination of cloze and error recognition tasks is potentially a powerful proficiency test. However, a search of the literature on second and foreign language testing reveals no published research on error recognition tasks of the above mentioned type. At this point there appears to be a need for extensive research in various types of error recognition tasks in ESL testing.

> "In production of language, expectations are formed as to what the output should look like, and the output is modified until it conforms to the expectations. In reception of language, expectancies are constantly generated as to what is likely to follow in a given sequence, and are modified to match received input. The first process is actually one of synthesis-by-analysis and the second is one of analysis-by-synthesis. In both cases there is a matching of physically realized signals to expectancies generated on the basis of an underlying grammar." (p. 8)

We can contruct a test that does not separate language from its use, allowing us to test communication in contexts similar to, if not the same as contexts the students would normally encounter in the real world. The real world outside our language classrooms is not concerned particularly whether the language skills are refined to the n-th degree, as much as it is concerned about how effectively one employs the vast number of linguistic, paralinguistic and non-linguistic strategies available to the individual in the context of the communication act.

Oller (1973 a) proposes a theoretical base for integrative tests. In any normal use of language, he explains that the sequence of linguistic elements that occur is restricted by various kinds of context.

To sum up, we have tried to suggest some of the weaknesses of the current trend of using discrete point tests to determine language proficiency in second languages. The discrete point basis has been falsified by revealing the theoretical flaws in its foundation. A functional approach based on effective language use in appropriate situations has been proposed. Finally Oller's theory of a grammar of expectancy, which incorporates the redundancy utilization factor, has been introduced to provide a theoretical base for an integrative approach to testing.

It remains to be seen whether any institute or body of applied linguists will develop a scale of functional language use as proposed by Spolsky. It also remains to be seen if Oller's pragmatic approach - grammars of expectancy—has been defined in theoretical terms that can be falsified, and if they are so defined, whether they can be falsified. These problems are beyond the scope of this present paper.

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